

HYDRAULIC

*ITS PROPERTIES,
AND USE*

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PREFACE TO

THE following pages contain a study of the nature and purpose of the subject and the various methods which are in use, for testing cement.

The subject is not so simple as it appears to the casual observer, but about the same as the results of experiments and the views of the authorities, which at times

The views of the authorities are based on the observation of the behavior

and concrete, and a number
appended for the purpose of
of leading American engineers

ITHACA, N. Y., March, 1897.

PREFACE TO SECOND EDITION

IN this edition a general revision has been made with the purpose of bringing the book up to date with the most recent investigation of the composition and properties of cement, and of describing the latest standard methods of testing.

The articles relating to the composition of cement have been practically rewritten, while the articles relating to the properties of cement have been thoroughly revised.

The specifications appended to the end of the book are given in order to show examples of existing practice.



CONTENTS

CHAPTER I

HYDRAULIC LIME

Art. 1.	Definition.	1
" 2.	Chemical Ingredients.	2
" 3.	Hydraulic Index.	3
" 4.	Classification of Limes.	4
" 5.	Common Lime.	5
" 6.	Hydraulic Lime.	6
" 7.	Manufacture of Hydraulic Lime.	7
" 8.	Grappiers.	8
" 9.	Regulation.	9

CHAPTER I

THE SETTING AND HARDENING

- Art. 18. The Setting of Cement.
" 19. The Hardening of Cement.
" 20. Chemical Theory.
" 21. Influence of Calcium Sulphate.
" 22. Influence of Calcium Chloride.
" 23. Effect of Sand.
" 24. Water used in Gauging.
" 25. Effect of Environment.
" 26. Effect of Temperature.
" 27. Effect of Age upon Cement.
" 28. Effect of Fineness.

CHAPTER IV

THE SOUNDNESS OF

- Art. 29. Permanence of Volume.
" 30. Free Lime.
" 31. Magnesia.
" 32. Aluminate of Lime.

- Art. 42. Methods Employed.
- “ 43. Form of Briquette.
- “ 44. Standard Sand.
- “ 45. Methods of Making Briquette.
- “ 46. Mechanical Appliances for
- “ 47. Tensile Tests.
- “ 48. Compressive Tests.
- “ 49. Transverse Tests.
- “ 50. Factors Affecting Strength.
- “ 51. Interpretation of Results.

CHAPTER

TESTS FOR S

- Art. 52. Ordinary Tests.
- “ 53. Measurement of Expansion.
- “ 54. Accelerated Tests.
- “ 55. Kiln Test.
- “ 56. Steam and Hot-water Tests.
- “ 57. Boiling Test.
- “ 58. Pressure Test.
- “ 59. American Standard Tests.
- “ 60. Value of Accelerated Tests.
- “ 61. Air-slaking.

CHAPTER

SPECIAL

- Art. 62. Test of Adhesive Strength.
- “ 63. Chemical Analysis.
- “ 64. Tests for Homogeneity.
- “ 65. Abrasive Tests.
- “ 66. Tests for Porosity.

- Art. 67. Tests for Permeability.
 " 68. Frost Tests.
 " 69. Tests for Yield of Mortar.
 " 70. Tests of Sand.

CHAPTER

CEMENT MORTAR AND CONCRETE

- Art. 71. Sand for Mortar.
 " 72. Proportioning Mortar.
 " 73. Gauging Mortar.
 " 74. Preparation of Concrete.
 " 75. Yield of Mortar and Concrete.
 " 76. Mixtures of Lime and Cement.
 " 77. The Freezing of Mortar.
 " 78. Porosity and Permeability of Concrete.
 " 79. Expansion and Contraction of Concrete.
 " 80. Effect of Retempering Mortar.

APPENDIX

SPECIFICATIONS FOR THE RECORD

General Remarks.
 A. Specifications for the Record.

HYDRAULI

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HYDRAULI

ART. 1. I

LIME is the name common to the lime obtained by the calcination of limestone. The stones employed differ greatly in the properties of the limes obtained, and in the nature and proportions of the ingredients in them.

When the limestone is calcined, it forms a carbonate of lime, the clinker, which is known as *quicklime*, possesses the property of *slaking*, upon being treated with water. The slaking of lime is a violent reaction when in contact with water, and is accompanied by a considerable increase in the mass of lime and by a rise in temperature. A quantity of water be only sufficient to slake the lime, the quicklime is reduced to a fine powder. If the water be in excess it becomes a milk of lime.

The slaked lime thus formed is called

property, when mixed to a paste, to stand in the air, of hardening to any surface with which it comes in contact. The property of hardening of common limes is destroyed when exposed to the air and allowed to stand.

When lime is nearly pure and of great strength, it is known as *fat lime*.

If the lime have mixed with it considerable percentages of impurities, which act as an adulterant of the lime, causing a partial loss of its strength and also diminishing its power of hardening, it is known as *meagre lime*.

When the impurities in the lime are of silica and alumina, they are destroying its property of slaking and hardening under water and of setting to the presence of air.

When the proportions of the impurities are such that the material hardens in water, it is known as *hydraulic lime*.

ing products differ greatly affected both by the composition and by the manipulation given of manufacture. Because of character of the material, it is extraneous any general laws governing its system of testing which shall give a true notion of value.

Hydraulic limes are used quite extensively but are not made to any extent in this country. The American cement industry is, however, making rapid strides. Natural cements are manufactured in large quantities and the production of Portland cement is increasing to large proportions, although a considerable amount of foreign cement is still imported.

ART. 2. CHEMICAL ANALYSIS.

The most important ingredients of cement are stones, in addition to the carbonates of lime, alumina, silica, oxide of iron, etc. These commonly contain also small quantities of sulphuric acid, phosphoric acid, oxide of iron, soda, bituminous or carbonaceous substances, and water. The limestones contain small particles of chert which are employed.

The volatile substances are the carbonates of lime because they disappear on heating. The percentage of carbonic acid and

driven off in the burning or is absorbed by the air will appear in the lime. If the carbonic acid be large, it indicates either that the burning has been incomplete or that the lime has been weakened by subsequent exposure. The carbonic acid is thus diminished, the portion of lime which has been rendered inactive by the carbonic acid being rendered active again.

Silica is undoubtedly the most important ingredient rendering lime hydraulic and is usually present in the form of silicious sand not only in the lime but unaffected by the burning and present in the product. It is only that portion of the silica which is present in a condition to be rendered active and combine with the lime which renders the lime hydraulic properties to the lime.

Alumina is an important element in the composition although not, as seems to be the case, essential to its hydraulicity. Vicat found that lime without silica would not render

ditions under which it is present in most cases is in considerable hydraulic limes by burning carbonaceous lime, thus showing that the carbonaceous lime imparts hydraulic properties to the lime. It has also been shown by Mr. H. St. Clair that the presence of magnesium by itself is sometimes sufficient to set and sets under water. Other experiments indicate that magnesia might also be used to replace that element in forming a hydraulic cement of silica and lime. These results are entirely due to the hydraulic properties of the lime, and are independent of any action of the magnesia on the lime.

The silicates and aluminates of lime possess the property of hardening under the action of the salts of lime, and in some cements the action of the salts of lime which would otherwise be required to set the cement by magnesia. The action in this case is not definitely known, and there is

by different investigators with true in a less degree with the limes sometimes be rendered inert by too much of it.

Sulphuric Acid occurs in some limes, and sulphur also sometimes in the form of sulphide, usually of iron. During the setting of the mortar the sulphide may become transformed into sulphate, or either or both forms may remain. Experience seems to indicate that, in general, a deleterious substance, and that the durability of mortar made from such limes is doubtful. The sulphide, however, is sometimes found in hydraulic properties of the material, and is not so doubtful. In Europe it is common to use a large quantity of sulphur or sulphuric acid in the preparation of the lime.

Phosphoric Acid occurs in some limes, and is a material of this character, and its action other than that of common lime, which is thus rendered

ART. 3. HYDRAULIC

The hydraulic activity of a lime is its ability to harden under water, and it varies upon the relative proportions of its ingredients and of lime. Silica and alumina are to be the effective hydraulic ingredients. It is common to designate the ratio of the weight of silica and alumina to that of lime as its *hydraulic index*.

The hydraulic index gives, within certain limits, a measure of the hydraulic activity of different classes of limes. It is to be remembered, however, that there are other factors to be considered in the action of a lime than its hydraulic index. The other ingredients may by their presence draw portions of the active elements of the lime, thus reducing the effective ratio between them. The hydraulic activity of a lime depends largely upon the

limes according to the properties obtained by them.

When the hydraulic lime is 20/100 the lime is known to require from 12 to 20 days for hydraulic lime proper including about 20/100 to 40/100. For 10 days, the more rapid is as *eminently hydraulic*.

When the hydraulic lime is 60/100 the lime is of *lime*. These limes have hydraulic lime, but form the proper and the cements, and as a general thing not of the hydraulic ingredients cement. When burned and give hydraulic lime of rapid properly treated and burned makes good Portland cement.

termine at exactly what point lime but when it requires a month or water it is usually considered as bo

In determining the rate of ha are so many external circumstances the result that there is always causes classification by that me uncertain. Variation in temper important effect upon the rate of h

ART. 5. COMMON

Common lime is such as does properties. It is divided into fat lime, according to the quantity of character it may contain. When left in air it slowly hardens. T ing consists in the gradual form lime through the absorption of air, accompanied by the crystall hydrated lime as it gradually d lime the final hardening takes plac inward from the surface, as it is tact of the mortar with the air. V pure the resulting carbonate is soluble, and consequently to be Nearly all limes, however, contain silica and alumina, and these ing quantities too small to render the

a certain power to set, causing it to place with greater rapidity and force upon contact with air. It is less soluble and more durable.

Limes containing but a small amount of water consist mainly of calcium oxide, which and becomes hydrated very rapidly upon contact with water. This hydration produces a rise in temperature and the products which vary in amount according to the lime, the volume being doubled.

The common method of setting is to mix the quicklime with water, using about one volume of the lime. This method is called *slaking*. The lime is usually spread in a layer of perhaps 6 or 8 inches thick, and water is poured over it and allowed to soak. It must be allowed for all of the water. When the lime contains much water, the operation frequently requires several days.

Too great a quantity of water

slaking by immersion is as follows. By the first method, the lime is put in baskets for a brief period to permit the necessary water, after which it is removed until the slaking takes place and the water is absorbed.

By the second method, sprayers are used for immersion proper, the lime being first sprinkled with the necessary water, then covered with sand and allowed to settle.

The difficulty in using these methods is to get the right quantity of water to produce a proper slake. Lime so slaked may be used in form of powder.

Spontaneous Slaking is also known as *air-slaking*; it consists in exposing the lime to the air, and is effected by absorption of moisture.

Lime slaked by immersion is called *water-slaked*; slaked by drowning and requiring no further water into a paste. Slaked lime, either by immersion or by air-slaking, may be kept indefinitely if properly stored.

Lime is commonly sold as *air-slaked* or *lump* in lumps and not air-slaked. If it has been exposed to the air, it is called *air-slaked*; both moisture and carbonic acid being active, the portion combined with the water being inert. A simple test of the quality of lime is to immerse a lump for a minute in water and observe whether it swells, and whether there is a rise of temperature.

Slaking some days in advance of use is recommended.

order to insure the complete reaction, it is quite common to slake lime before it is to be used.

The swelling of lime has been avoided by slaking with steam instead of water. It has been found by Candlot that the addition to the water of a small quantity (6%) of chloride of calcium prevents the swelling of the nesium.

Common lime is ordinarily used in making a mortar, mixed with sand. In making the mortar should be just sufficient sand to fill the sand, without leaving any voids in the lime. Mortar of rich lime should be made in masses composed entirely of lime, and is likely to remain soft, so that it is an element of weakness. If the mortar may be porous, the proportions ordinarily required are 3 parts sand, and 1 part lime to 1 part sand.

Mortar of common lime should

HYDRAULIC L

often greater than that of cohesion of mortar.

Meagre limes are similar in action, less energetic. They swell feebly on slight change in temperature. They are that of fat lime, but cracks less and are limes proper, those containing silica to materially reduce the energy, employed in construction.

ART 6. HYDRAULIC

Hydraulic lime is obtained by combining silica and alumina in sufficient quantity to retain the ability to harden under water. Silica and alumina are present in such quantities that they combine with a portion of the lime, forming silicates and aluminates of lime, leaving the remainder in uncombined state.

the case of the limiting limes. ally those which can be burned complete the chemical combinat

It is necessary that sufficien cause the lime to slake properl that the quantity of uncombined sible, as the setting properties a aluminates, while the hydrated the initial hardening of the mor

According to Professor Le hydraulic lime should contain aluminates are hydrated during and become inert, while the si heat of the slaking preventing t

The following is given as a best French hydraulic lime:

Silica.

Alumina.

Oxide of iron.

Lime

HYDRAULIC LIME

Hydraulic lime is used in the form of a mortar, lime, being mixed with sand to a paste. In air hydraulic lime acts like common lime, and slowly absorbs carbonic acid, and cracks when without sand, but not in water. In water, or in damp situations, the actions are altogether different. The hydraulic lime hardens more or less rapidly. In the early stage a large amount of the lime is at first dissolved, and is then arrested as the hardening progresses.

Hydraulic lime is commonly slaked, and shipped in form of powder. To prevent injury, in this form by covering with oil, or the air.

ART. 7. MANUFACTURE OF

The manufacture of hydraulic lime, as carried on in Europe consists,

When full it is lighted at the bottom, new layers of material are added while the burned lime is drawn off, the furnace being kept in continuous operation. The rate of burning is controlled by damper openings and cover at the top.

In furnaces of the second class the gases of combustion are passed through the material, not in direct contact with the fuel.

The regulation of a furnace to secure the best of burning is a matter requiring skill and demanding the close attention of the operator. The lime must be completely burned. The character of the limestone determines the rate of burning necessary. A lime of high index may be burned at a much higher rate than one of high index. When the limestone is of poor character it will not burn evenly, but will be vitrified before that of high index is burned. The burning is accelerated by moist, and stone fresh from the quarry, and that which has been exposed until the surface has been evaporated.

The chemical phenomena of the burning process are approximately as follows: The carbon dioxide is first driven off. The carbonate of lime is decomposed. Then the clay is dehydrated, and the combination of the silica and lime takes place. The temperature rises as these changes depend upon the

HYDRAULIC LIM

composition of the carbonate of lime is burned at a temperature of 700° C. to 900° C. The temperature required for burning depends upon the silica and alumina present. When the silica is low the temperature must be sufficiently high. The combinations of the lime with the silica and alumina in order to impart hydraulic properties depend upon the combinations while if the hydraulic index be high the temperature is a little greater than that necessary to burn the lime. It may be sufficient, and a higher temperature would effect complete combinations of the silica and alumina, may so greatly increase the amount of free lime as to destroy the proper properties.

The *slaking* of hydraulic lime is accomplished by sprinkling, as mentioned above, the lime after coming from the furnace, with 4 to 8 inches deep in the slaking-pit, and sprinkled so that all of the quicklime is covered from 7% to 10% of water is common.

of silicate which is hydrated because it may be imperfectly slaked, the free lime may cause injury to the mortar. Mortar so affected will set more quickly, but afterward is likely to swell.

Steam is sometimes used for slaking and is said by Le Chatelier to be used on the lime while producing no effect.

It is claimed that the alumina in the slaking of the lime, being combined with steam, and hence are undesirable.

After the lime has been reduced to a fine powder, it is forced through sieves of all pulverized particles, but the size, including the underburned and burned parts which refuse to pass, from the first bolting is known.

HYDRAULIC LIM

in silica and alumina, obtained from the limestone, disseminated through the limestone, and the combination of the cinders of combustion with the lime. This is what is properly meant by hydraulic lime.

Bonnami found in his investigations that a large part of the grappiers are from the limestone which are in contact with the fire during the burning, and due to the silica and alumina in the cinders. These cinders are usually quite fine.

The grappiers are ground and mixed with the lime or used separately as cement.

The addition of ground grappiers to the lime has the effect of raising the hydraulicity of the lime and increasing its activity, and of controlling to a certain extent the setting of the lime. In this case the mixture between the grappiers must be very intimate in order to form a homogeneous material. It is also very important that the lime in the grappiers be entirely sintered.

It is employed with cement in mortars and concrete, etc.

ANALYSES OF LIME AND GRAVEL

	Slaked Lime.	Me- ab.
	Per Cent.	Per Cent.
Silica.	23.05	2
Alumina and iron oxide.	2.75	
Lime.	65.75	6
Magnesia.	1.50	
Water, etc.	6.95	

ART. 9. PUZZOLANA

The term puzzolana is commonly applied to certain materials which, when made into mortar, either with or feebly hydraulic lime, impart special properties and cause the mortar to set more rapidly.

Puzzolana (or pozzuolana) is a volcanic material of volcanic origin, deriving its name from the district of Italy near the foot of Mount Vesuvius.

with clay in considerable proportion to the total volume. It may be made with water, which will harden on drying, and is sometimes used for common mortar with lime.

Psammites is a sandstone consisting of quartz, schist, felspar, and mica, agglutinated with cement. It is slaty in character and hardens to a paste with water.

Puzzolana may be made artificially, and natural ones may frequently be found. The process of making, which has the effect of dehydrating the silica and alumina of which they are mainly composed, is to heat it in condition to combine readily with lime.

Berthier gives the following analyses of natural samples of puzzolanas:

	Trass.
Silica.	0.570
Alumina.	0.120
Lime.	0.020
Magnesia.	0.010
Iron oxide.	0.050
Potash.	0.070
Soda.	0.010
Water, etc.	0.440

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CLASSIFICATION AND

ART. 10. CLA

HYDRAULIC cements
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The term *Portland* C
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draulic index than th

tain a minimum of 1.7 parts of lime substances. The addition of 2% matter may be tolerated in the cement, with the view of augmenting qualities, without the necessity of

Natural Cements are those which are obtained from burning limestones less rich in lime than the hydraulic limes or Portland cements. They are like the hydraulic limes without the addition of raw material, and require a much longer time in burning than does Portland cement.

This class includes a number of cements widely in composition and value. They are commonly divided into quick-setting and slow-setting, frequently called *Roman Cement*, and hydraulic cements, known sometimes as natural cements. In the United States there is much confusion in the materials coming within this class, and confusion in their nomenclature. They are commonly designated by a name derived from the place where they are obtained, and this is not a very satisfactory method. Thus, the cements from the region of the Ohio valley are called cements from Southeastern Ohio, the cements from the Ohio valley, Portland cements from the corresponding region, and cements from Akron, and Milwaukee are named after the location of manufactories of particular

The term *American Cement* is applied to include all natural cements of the United States. This, however, often leads to confusion on account of the fact that other than American cements are made quite extensively in this country. The term *American Portland Cement* is a

The term *Rosendale Cement* has a general meaning and is used as a synonym for American and American to include all cements, however, more properly restricted to the district in which it was first applied. There is no good reason for extending the term to a totally different material.

Slag Cement, or, as a more correct term, *Slag Portland Cement*, is the product obtained by the mixture of slaked lime with fine slag, a waste material, commonly blast-furnace slag. In this material the hydraulic ingredients are not present, but are present in the cement only.

CLASSIFICATION AND CONSTITUTION

ART. 11. MANUFACTURE

The manufacture of hydraulic cement practised consists of four operations: the selection of the raw material, the burning, the grinding, and the packing.

The methods of preparing the raw material are according to the nature of the material to be used in burning. For natural cement it is only necessary to select the proper material and break it into fragments of suitable size for introduction into the furnace. The production of Portland cement requires the use of homogeneous materials and must be used to prevent the introduction of impurities into a single burning.

The methods of preparing the raw material for the manufacture of Portland cement depend on the character of the materials and the method of burning. Several classes of materials are used.

manufacture of slag 'cement (so called) materials are not burned together.

These materials are first to be divided state and incorporated into This is accomplished either by the the details of the method varying in

In general where the dry method is necessary to pass the material through to the grinders, although there are which this is not done. These dryers about 5 feet in diameter and 40 feet nearly horizontal, the material in small fragments being fed into the upper out at the lower end. The material proper proportions and ground to powder, when it is ready to go to kiln is to be used or to be made into kiln is to be employed. In some method is modified by grinding the and afterward putting them through

CLASSIFICATION AND CONSTITUTION

great care must be exercised in sectioning of the ingredients and their incorporation into the mixture. Careful proportions must be made and proportions must be proper composition to the cement. Grinding is usually necessary in order that the mixture may be very intimate.

Natural cement is commonly burned in vertical kilns in which the fuel and the cement are together or in alternate layers at the top and is drawn out at the bottom as the burning proceeds.

For Portland cement rotary kilns are commonly used in the United States. These kilns have come into use during the past few years because of the decreased labor cost of handling the material and not so economical of fuel as some of the vertical kiln. These kilns are usually of cylindrical shape and set with axis at an angle of about 30° to the horizontal. They vary from about 60 to 100 feet in length and are usually 4 or 6 feet in diameter.

of lime-kiln, and is used by charging a charge of the cement material in layers of fuel in layers. It is then fired, and is complete, allowed to cool, after which

The continuous kilns in use are the *ring or Hoffman kiln* and the

The Hoffman continuous kiln is arranged in a circle around a central chamber being fired at a time and the material passing through the chambers continuously, the firing progressing from one end continuously around the kiln.

The Aalborg kiln is a shaft kiln in which a chamber is placed at the top, in which the material is fed in the form of bricks and the products of combustion pass; below, is a furnace in which the burning is completed, the fuel is fed, and at the bottom is a chamber from which the clinker is withdrawn.

The Dietzsch kiln is similar to

CLASSIFICATION AND CONSTITUTION

incomplete; a part of the lime remains uncombined with the clay. The clinker is of light weight. In the burning, as the limestone and the clay materials are heated, the decomposition of the lime is first effected, the limestone loses out loss of volume, and thus suffers a decrease in density. As the subsequent combination of the lime with the clay occurs, a contraction in volume takes place and the density becomes greater.

In stationary kilns the clinker is removed from the chambers of the kiln and must be cooled. From rotary kilns the clinker drops directly to the bottom and must be cooled before packing. For this purpose two principal methods are employed. In the vertical tower cooler the clinker is cooled with water is elevated to the top of the tower and to slide down through the tower. In the rotary cooler the hot clinker passes through a cylinder set with bricks or water.

controlling the rate of setting and of the presence of small proportions

After grinding, the cement is exposed to the purpose of allowing any free lime to become air-slaked, after which it is put in bins or is put in barrels or sacks for instances keeping it for a time in upon for aeration, while in others altogether.

The manufacture of Portland cement requires care in the proportioning of the materials and its subsequent manipulation. Each mixture is studied in order to determine the proper proportions to give the mixture and the proper curing to secure the best results, and these operations are closely controlled by frequent laboratory tests. The grade of cement is to be made.

CLASSIFICATION AND CONSTITUTION

"This term is applied to the fine product resulting from the calcination to incandescence of an intimate mixture of properly proportioned argillaceous and calcareous materials, and to which a fineness greater than 3% has been made satisfactory."

The Association of German Portland Cement Manufacturers in 1903 adopted the following definition:

"Portland cement is a hydraulic cement, made with a specific gravity of not less than 1.4 in air condition, and containing not less than 10% by weight of lime to each one part of siliceous oxide, the material being prepared by grinding the raw ingredients, calcining to incandescence, clinkering temperature and then grinding to the required fineness."

These definitions imply that Portland cement is an artificial mixture of materials to secure a certain condition. All Portland cements made in Germany are of this character, but in France

the formation of active material. of clay beyond this point, it forms a surplus of lime remains in the cement constitutes one of the chief dangers, as, although it may not prevent the cement when used, it may cause the cement to swell and become cracked and distorted.

As perfect homogeneity is not always achieved, it is always necessary that there be an excess of lime in order that free lime may be present in amount of excess of clay necessary to insure upon the thoroughness of the preparation and the evenness which may be obtained in the mixture of raw materials.

The hydraulic index of Portland cement is about 42/100 to 60/100. The value is affected by the relative proportions of lime and iron oxide contained by the cement. The relative weights of these oxides differ.

CLASSIFICATION AND CONSTITUTION

while Table II, collected from various analyses of a few of the leading Portland cements.

TABLE I.
COMPOSITION OF PORTLAND CEMENTS

	Silica.	Alumina.	Oxide of Iron.	Lime.
French cements	22.20	6.72	2.28	67.31
	23.50	7.75	2.95	64.07
	21.70	7.48	2.57	65.54
	23.40	7.36	2.84	63.70
	24.50	7.09	2.81	62.40
	25.40	6.65	2.75	61.60
	21.80	6.56	2.64	57.42
	24.25	5.20	2.30	63.61
	22.30	8.04	3.71	58.68
	23.25	7.44	2.10	62.55
	23.00	8.33	3.87	60.90
	24.60	7.98	2.51	59.10
	23.15	7.83	3.37	61.40
	23.30	7.65	3.10	62.20
	23.15	7.88	3.37	61.30
	23.70	7.80	3.40	59.36
	22.25	8.22	3.38	60.48
	21.05	7.00	3.01	59.08

A large number of analyses of cements are given by Professor T for the most part about the same as those already given.

TABLE II.

COMPOSITION OF AMERICAN PORTLAND CEMENTS

	Silica.	Alumina.	Oxide of Iron.	Lime.
Sandusky.....	22.33	5.53	3.28	64.40
".....	22.06	4.80	1.66	65.48
Atlas.....	21.30	7.65	2.85	60.93
".....	21.96	8.29	2.67	60.53
Buckeye.....	21.30	6.95	2.00	62.30
".....	20.75	13.50		62.25
Giant.....	23.36	8.07	4.83	58.93
".....	19.92	9.83	2.63	60.33
Lehigh.....	22.96	6.78	2.54	63.93
".....	22.13	9.56		62.63
Empire.....	22.04	6.45	3.41	60.93
".....	20.80	7.39	2.61	64.00
Alpha.....	20.38			63.30
".....	22.62	8.76	2.66	62.20

CLASSIFICATION AND CONSTITUTION

principal ingredients. He concludes that the tricalcic silicate, SiO_5Ca_3 , is the only silicate which is hydraulic and that it is the essential component of cement. In Portland cement he finds a component, occurring in cubical crystals, which is formed by combination of silica and lime. The compounds formed by the alumina and lime are of no value for cement.

"The dicalcic silicate, SiO_4Ca_2 , is of no value for cement. The property of spontaneously pulverizing is due to the rapid cooling. This silicate does not possess hydraulic properties and will not harden under water. It is attacked by carbonic acid, forming a soluble compound, and thus contributes something to the softening of mortar employed in air. The addition of magnesia to form the double silicate SiO_4MgCa , prevents the pulverizing and is of no value for cement.

"At a very high heat the tricalcic silicate is decomposed into the dicalcic silicate and lime, which is inert."

function is to assist the combination of lime.

"This silico-aluminate, which is found in land cement on account of slow cooling, is in condition when the cooling is sufficient to form the case of blast-furnace slag upon exposure to water. It combines with hydrate of lime and gives rise to the hydrated silicates and aluminates identical with those formed during the setting of land cement. It is these properties which have based the manufacture of slag cement.

Prof. Le Chatelier gives two limits to the quantity of lime in Portland cement which has been found. These are, that the proportion of lime should always be greater than that represent-

$$(1) \quad \frac{\text{CaO} + \text{MgO}}{\text{SiO}_2 - \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 - \text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3}$$

and that it should never exceed that of

aluminate being formed. If less lime the bicalcic silicate would be formed.

Formula (2) represents the point of lime would be sufficient to form and aluminate to the exclusion of If more lime than this be present, form of free lime.

It is also stated by Prof. Le Chatelier that a good quality form 3.5 to 4, and formula (2) gives 2.5

Dr. Erdmenger considers* that borne out by experience, as they in that magnesia may be considered pointed out that the formation of depends upon the temperature of being to Prof. Le Chatelier, the tricalcium silicate is decomposed and become inert at temperature.

Dr. Erdmenger also states that cooling may in some instances be suddenly, as by plunging into cold so treated the material does not become

The examination of a considerable of good Portland cement shows that these formulas are commonly met the maximum in formula (2) is closely (from about 2.5 to 2.8) formula (1) is, however, not usually

* Journal Society of Chemical Engineers

cements, which give results varying from 4 to 4.5.

Newberry's Investigations.—Mr. Newberry has made a careful investigation of the constitution of Portland cement by forming, in the laboratory, compounds of alumina with lime and studying the effect of varying proportions.

Silicates of lime were formed of lime and quartz ground to impalpability and heated to an intense white heat. The product was as in Le Chatelier's experiments, hard on cooling, but when suddenly cooled in water this was prevented and the product being ground gave a white powder which with water, set slowly and became hard in a day, and was quite sound. The product gave a white clinker, sintered at a high temperature. The powder obtained by grinding the clinker slowly in water, becoming fairly

with water and set in a few seconds after six weeks.

The aluminate, $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3, 2\frac{1}{2}\text{CaO}$ heated strongly with water and set distorted and cracked after three weeks cracked at six weeks.

The tricalcic aluminate, Al_2O_3 in water and set quickly, but became in a short time, and disintegrated in water.

The conclusions reached by follows:

(1) Lime may be combined with of three molecules to one and still retain a constant volume and good though hardening very slowly. lime to one of silica the product is in water.

(2) Lime may be combined with portion of two molecules to one, sets quickly but shows good hardening $2\frac{1}{2}$ molecules of lime to one of silica unsound.

"Assuming that the tricalcic silicate aluminates are the most basic and exist in good cement we arrive at



in which X and Y are variable

upon relative proportions of silica and lime employed.

" $3\text{CaO}, \text{SiO}_2$ corresponds to 2.8 parts of lime to 1 of silica, while $2\text{CaO}, \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ corresponds to one of lime to one of alumina.

$$\therefore \% \text{ lime} = \% \text{ silica} \times 2.8 + \% \text{ alumina}$$

This formula represents the maximum lime allowable.

Le Chatelier's maximum formula is $3\text{CaO}, \text{SiO}_2$ form, leaving out of account Fe_2O_3

$$\% \text{ lime} = \% \text{ silica} \times 2.8 + \% \text{ alumina}$$

being based upon the tricalcic silicate and aluminate.

Newberry differs from Le Chatelier in that he considers the percentages of Fe_2O_3 and MgO in the cement considered in determining the proportions of lime and silica.

CLASSIFICATION AND CONSTRUCTION

what affected by the additional fuel with which it is burned. lower the per cent of lime in the

According to M. Bonnami a formed, as with hydraulic lime, duced less basic than the rest of character of puzzolana. This through the cement in grinding raise the hydraulic index. It is act like a puzzolana in combination hardening of the cement.

Richardson's Investigations.—The lier and the Newberrys have been tending knowledge of the composition land cement. Mr. Clifford Richardson further investigation into the which is of much importance understanding of the subject.

Mr. Richardson made micro-

trial clinker. They are in fact oxides of aluminum and silicates of indefinite composition.

Törnebohm had made a microscopical examination of land-cement clinker and found four constituents, named and described as follows:

"*Alit* is the preponderating element. It consists of colorless crystals of rather strong cleavage and of weak double refraction.

"*Belit* is recognized by its dirty gray color, its muddy color and by its brilliant cleavage. It is biaxial and of high index of refraction. It consists of small round grains of no recognizable shape or character.

"*Celit* is recognized by its deep color. It fills the interstices between the grains of *alut* being the magma or liquid of low viscosity from which the *alut* is separated. It is highly refractive, that is to say, gives a strong double refraction when examined between crossed nicol prisms.

"*Felit* is colorless. Its index of refraction is low.

CLASSIFICATION AND CONSTITUTION

two principal constituents of Portland cement, alit and celit, as described above. Alit has been shown to be a solid solution of tricalcic aluminate in dicalcic silicate and celit a solution of dicalcic aluminate in dicalcic silicate. These solutions may be of any concentration according to the relative amounts of silicates and aluminates present up to the limit of solubility. These were studied synthetically, being independently produced, and then mixed together as in Portland cement by combining dicalcic silicate, $\text{SiO}_2 \cdot 2\text{CaO}$, with varying proportions of tricalcic aluminate, $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 3\text{CaO}$. The limits of solubility found by Mr. Richardson for cement are: 7 parts of dicalcic silicate with no aluminate present to 3 parts of tricalcic aluminate, or a ratio of 7 tricalcic silicate to 3 dicalcic aluminate, $7(\text{SiO}_2 \cdot 2\text{CaO})_3(\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 3\text{CaO})$.

Mr. Richardson's explanation of these solutions is as follows:

"Having determined that alit and celit are solid solutions of aluminates in silicates, the aluminates

periments of Robert-Austen have shown that mobility in solids exists, since when the surfaces of gold and lead are brought into contact and left under pressure for some time at high temperatures, gold is diffused into the lead and lead into the gold for an appreciable distance. The rates of diffusion of the components which form a cement are not very different from those of a black metal when subjected to the same temperature become converted into a silicious sulphate of soda and calcium which diffuse when brought into close contact with the solution of barium sulphate and calcium. It is not difficult to understand, therefore, that at a temperature of 1650° C. the particles of lime may diffuse below the melting point of the clinker to form a Portland cement. The stability of a clinker is stable depends not only upon the fact that the diffusion is slow but upon the fact that the diffusion is slow even in material which is only slightly soluble. Therefore, may be defined as diffusion.

CLASSIFICATION AND CONSTITUTION

perature is a function of the temperature. The longer the lower the temperature.

The work of these investigators has increased our knowledge of the constitution of various cement materials and made it possible to determine the proper composition for Portland cement within certain limits.

Further investigation is, however, necessary to obtain definite knowledge of the actions of the various constituents of cement and of the rôle of the ingredients in the three principal ones. The part played by iron oxide is in doubt, while iron oxide is supposed to act in a manner similar to alumina in forming cement. "Iron oxide combines with lime in a manner similar to alumina in promoting the cementation of lime. For practical purposes, however, the presence of iron oxide in a clay need not be considered in determining the proportion of lime required.

This is based upon the supposition that the amount of iron oxide is insignificant in amount.

would be needed for Portland c
vary greatly in composition and
of such composition as to ma
increasing the content of lime,
amounts of alumina or of magn
missible in materials for Portlan

The quick-setting natural ce
ents as they are called in Europe,
at a low temperature, argillaceo
high index. These cements are
a very rapid set and slowness in
quently. The feeble burning gi
and the formation of the silicates
as in the heavily burned Portlan
able percentage of aluminate of
is the cause of the quick set. S
is also commonly present in such
inert matter. Material of this
when the temperature of burni
point where the chemical reacti

CLASSIFICATION AND CONSTITUTION

mixtures used in making Portland cement. The proportion of lime cannot be so great as in the case of the

TABLE III.
COMPOSITION OF EUROPEAN PORTLAND CEMENTS

	Silicious Sand.	Silica.	Alumina.	Iron Oxide.	Lime.
1	22.60	8.90	5.30	52.69
2	6.00	24.80	7.00	4.80	44.12
3	21.70	8.29	3.71	52.68
4	23.60	7.99	4.31	57.40
5	21.80	10.03	3.77	55.00
6	2.00	26.80	10.39	4.61	46.10
7	10.70	30.80	7.82	5.13	33.04
8	2.40	25.45	9.25	3.85	47.95
9	29.55	8.35	4.10	47.50
10	21.00	8.40	5.10	52.05
11	23.40	12.90	3.30	47.70
12	0.85	29.05	7.95	3.75	46.05
13	25.85	9.10	4.10	51.60
14	4.35	27.35	7.73	3.85	50.25
15	25.85	10.00	4.85	54.20
16	29.10	12.50	4.65	48.60

of this character, therefore, requires special care to produce good results. As the amount of free lime becomes greater the homogeneity becomes less, and irregularities only have to be made up by the quantity of inert matter, which must be added from the cement to gain strength. It is observed that the material spoken of gains strength more slowly than with Portland cement of low free lime. It is also observed that the material spoken of delays the gain in strength in the mortar, but this, being, may not be altogether incorrect, may not be altogether incorrect to the final strength of the cement, but it is of a different character and perhaps ultimately results in a greater hydrated lime in the mortar.

These cements occupy an intermediate position between the artificial Portland cements and the natural cements, and may approach either extreme. In fact, the same raw material may be used for either—if burned lightly, giving the

CLASSIFICATION AND CONSTITUTION

properties is well known, their action on Fremy being probably much slower than on the lime-salts.

The action of cements of this class is similar to that of Roman cements: they set slowly, but may be either quick- or slow-setting. The composition of the magnesian cements differs from that of the Roman cements to one in which the proportion of magnesia is as large as that of lime. As the proportion of magnesia to lime increases, the strength of the cement, considering magnesia as lime, frequently becomes less than would be admitted for a cement.

Magnesian cements are but little used in the United States; they form the only natural cements in use, and many of them are known by experience to be very useful and durable. Table IV gives analyses of American magnesian cements from various districts, showing some of the composition of these materials.

TABLE IV

COMPOSITION OF AMERICAN

District.	SiO ₂ .	Al ₂ O ₃ .	Fe ₂ O ₃ .
Utica.	27.60	10.60	0.80
"	34.66	5.10	1.00
Louisville.	26.40	6.28	1.00
"	22.54	8.28	2.14
"	23.29	5.96	2.16
Potomac.	28.02	10.20	8.80
"	30.22	8.38	5.38
Hudson.	27.98	7.28	1.70
"	28.91	10.96	4.68
"	31.28	11.30	
"	27.30	7.14	1.80
"	30.78	8.68	
Akron.	22.62	7.44	1.40
"	26.69	7.21	1.30
"	20.75	10.02	
Milwaukee.	23.16	6.33	1.71
"	25.00	4.00	2.80

The rock from which these ce
greatly in character in the sam
different strata of the same qu

CLASSIFICATION AND CONSTRUCTION

ally materially changed by age. If they are kept exposed to the air for a long time, they gradually become inactive, and perhaps eventually lose the power of setting, sometimes becoming puzzolana, and can be made active cement by reburning.

ART. 14. SLAG CEMENT

Slag-cement is formed by the combination of ground blast-furnace slag with a proper proportion of lime to render it hydraulic. The composition of a hydraulic cement is, therefore, the same as that of a slag, the slag used being of the same composition as the one commonly employed in making lime-cement.

The method employed in forming slag-cement is to heat the slag suddenly by plunging it into water, as it emerges from the furnace, and causes it to retain a granular, and causes it to retain

this ratio. He also finds that the best results are obtained from slags giving a ratio

$$\frac{\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3}{\text{SiO}_2} = 45/100 \text{ to } 50/100$$

M. Prost* states that a considerable amount of sulphur may be unobjectionable in some cases a case where good results have been obtained with a sulphurous slag, the only effect being attributed to sulphide of iron. He also states that the high-lime is most advantageous for this purpose, especially when rich in lime and alumina.

Slags in actual use for the manufacture of hydraulic cement vary considerably in composition.

The lime ratio ranges from about 1.30 to 1.80, the silica ratio from 0.40 to 0.90. In most instances the high-lime material is used together, that is, the high-lime ratio is used as the high-alumina ratio.

CLASSIFICATION AND CONSTRUCTION

stitute quicklime for slaked lime for slaking, but unsuccessfully mixed to some extent with the lime and the fine while particles of quicklime become cause swelling of the mortar after

In some of the European practice the ground and bolted through fine mesh mixed with the lime, but more commonly slake and bolt the lime and the slag before grinding, or to do this in two stages and make the mortar with two and second grinders.

The lime may advantageously be used after slaking before being used, but complete reduction of the quicklime is necessary to prevent it from deteriorate when kept long after slaking. It is commonly employed for this purpose and to be an advantage in using mortar made in this way the mortar being less likely to crack. M. Prost found that there was no

The composition of slag cement is different from that of Portland in having a less silica and alumina, and more iron oxide than the silica.

Table V gives the composition of the leading European slag cements and Tetmajer.

TABLE V
COMPOSITION OF SLAG CEMENTS

	Silica.	Alumina.	Iron Oxide.	Lime.
1	24.80	19.13	2.67	36.60
2	24.60	13.46	0.84	50.22
3	24.90	13.46	2.83	50.40
4	24.30	13.85	1.15	49.50
5	27.45	14.65	1.75	46.20
6	25.20	15.23	0.77	50.00
7	20.40	18.59	0.41	50.07
8	18.30	18.07	0.34	53.16
9	22.35	12.83	0.64	55.61
10	27.35	9.13	1.50	50.28
11	20.35	14.05	0.33	50.26
12	18.69	9.20	2.14	46.36
13	19.87	14.84	0.80	48.54

CLASSIFICATION AND CONSTITUTION

Mr. Redgrave also says that it may be kept for a long time without injury, and if kept in a dry place that it undergoes no change whatever. He also states that exposed to air it gradually loses its hydraulic properties, particularly its power of bonization.

ART. 15. MIXED CEMENTS

The term *Mixed Cement* is so defined as to include a considerable number of cements which are formed by a mixture of various kinds of cements. In works where other cement is made, a mixed cement may be made either for the purpose of saving space or product or of imparting to it certain qualities. They consist of admixtures of different kinds of the overburned or underburned cements, or of foreign material added to the cement.

Slag cements and certain natural cements, like some of the Rosendales, are not included in this

being mixed with natural cement. Portland cement being added to increase strength and reduce the rapidity of setting.

Cement of this kind is usually made of Portland or natural cement, the former being preferred on account of its real character. Some of the best and regularly made give good results.

ART. 16. GRAPPIERS

Grappiers cements are made of the grappiers left from the slaking of lime. Very great care is necessary to free the lime from the grappiers by the operation of slaking and boiling several times. The grappiers include all the overburned material from the kiln, as well as a certain amount of fuel, as well as a certain amount of water.

CLASSIFICATION AND CONSTITUTION

being present to slake the particles of cement, which it is air-slaked before packing.

ART. 17. SAND CEMENT

Sand cement is the name given to a mixture of sand by grinding together Portland cement and sand to an extremely fine powder and a very small amount of water. It is claimed that a very considerable amount of sand may thus be mixed with the cement without reducing its strength, and that the mixture may still be mixed with the usual amount of sand and give good results in use.

It is said that the additional grinding in pulverizing the sand reduces the amount of water required, thus increasing its power. Experiments also seem to indicate that when mixed separately, a certain amount may be added without serious injury to mortar made of

CHAPTER

THE SETTING AND HARDENING

ART. 18. THE SETTING

WHEN cement powder is mixed with water in a proper condition and allowed to stand, it gradually forms a solid mass, taking the water up and becoming soon becomes firm and hard. This process is called the *setting* of the cement.

Cements of different characters differ in their rate and manner of setting. Some set in a few minutes in the operation, while others require several hours. Some begin setting

THE SETTING AND HARDENING

rupture before any perceptible change takes place.

It is sometimes stated that the process involved in setting is an instantaneous one, the time we call the beginning of setting. After this time hardening then begins and is a gradual process. At the time the maximum strength is reached, the mortar shows with some cements a quite marked shrinkage. This shows itself at about this time by the appearance of a thin layer of water from the surface of the mass, which is due to the stiffening of the mass.

ART. 19. THE HARDENING

After the completion of the setting process the mortar continues to increase in strength for a considerable period of time. The development of strength is especially rapid in the case of cement

strength rapidly and attain it in a few days, while others hardly begin to continue to gain in strength. The quality of early hardening gives but a premature action of the cement, and the mortar may be the same kind as is attained.

Portland cement usually gains its maximum strength in a few days, and also, as a rule, attains a greater final strength when it is allowed to cure. Of two cements of the same kind it is safe to infer that that which gains strength more rapidly will prove the stronger and more durable. In fact, where an abnormal gain in strength in a few days the presumption is that the cement giving such results is acting at a more moderate rate.

The rate at which cement gains strength depends, of course, upon

THE SETTING AND HARDENING

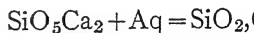
ART. 20. CHEMICAL

Very little is definitely known of the chemical reactions which take place in the setting and hardening of cement mortars. Several theories have been proposed to account for the phenomena observed by observers, based mainly upon the action of various compounds of lime, silica, and iron, synthetically. Chemical analysis has been made of the various elementary substances which cement is composed, but not their state of combination. The action of a cement may be greatly affected by the condition in which the ingredients are, changing the manipulation in making, and by changing their relative quantities.

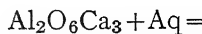
Fremy considered Portland cement as a very complex in composition, and ascribed its setting to the action of lime upon certain puzzolanic substances, and of double silicates of lime and alu-

while soluble in an anhydrous state when hydrated. When the silicates are in mixing mortar the anhydrous silicates then, becoming hydrated, take up water to the saturated solution in a state in which they are thus capable of existing in a dissolved state and then becoming precipitated in two ways—by decomposition.

The tricalcic silicate, which is one of the principal constituents of Portland cement, is decomposed by water to a hydrated monocalcic silicate.



The monocalcic silicate is precipitated as needle-like crystals and the crystals are visible to the eye. The tricalcic silicate is precipitated by simple combination with water.



THE SETTING AND HARDENING

The first setting of Portland cement is due to the hydrating of the aluminates, while the subsequent hardening is due to the progress of the hydration of the silicates. The rapidity of set is therefore determined by the relative proportions of aluminates and silicates. In the burning is done at a low temperature, the aluminates, which are first to set, while as the degree of hydration of the aluminates give place to the silicates, the setting to become slower and the final strength greater. The aluminates contribute but little to the final strength, as they are not permanent compounds, but are converted into various salts with which they are in contact in the work.

Cements of low hydraulic value set slowly and gain their full strength in a long time. They are more nearly in accordance with the theory should

they lose strength after hardening, probably due to the decomposition of the parts of too low hydraulic index. This loss of strength is usually temporary if the mortar is of normal composition; but if it is of too low index, the loss of strength may continue, to the final disintegration of the mortar.

The experiments of M. Candèl show that the presence of carbonic acid is essential for the setting of hydraulic cement mortar. Hydrated cement mortars were placed in distilled water, and after some time it became gradually decomposed, losing its coherence; but the presence of carbonic acid, common in all natural waters, prevented this, and caused proper hardening to take place.

Mr. Clifford Richardson offers a detailed explanation of the phenomena of setting of hydraulic cement, assuming the cement to be a solution, as indicated by Rich-

THE SETTING AND HARDENING

composed Portland cement together with the characteristics of the silicates and aluminates. The latter are acted upon much more rapidly than the former and it is to the crystallization of the aluminates that the first or initial setting is due. Subsequent hardening is due to the gradual removal of lime from the silicates. If the removal takes place rapidly than it is possible for it to take place in the water, expansion ensues and the volume is not constant.

"The set of Portland cement is due to the decomposition of the alit along the surface of a thin section of a neat Portland-cement brick, that it contains large quantities of alit and that a certain amount of unattacked alit is present. The ends of a neat Portland-cement brick are held together by means of a rubber band and after being kept some time in water the pieces of the brick are found to have become cemented together.

the greater its strength is known burned."

As already pointed out, cement (celit) gain strength more rapidly (much celit), but it has frequent cements slow to gain strength or stronger than those which This would seem to indicate low in lime (celit) may play a the ultimate hardening of cement only supposed.

ART. 21. INFLUENCE OF

The action of sulphate of lime setting of Portland cement is many it has been common to use of regulating the rate of set, by to the cement.

Candlet* has made a com

THE SETTING AND HARDEN

exposure soon becomes quick-setting, and after exposure again becomes slow. Cement mixed with the sulphate of lime has rendered inactive by exposure, it may again be made active by the addition of a small quantity of lime. Freshly exposed cement of lime added, and setting slowly, but setting rapidly if the mortar be mixed with carbonate of soda.

“Cement having sulphate of lime sets more rapidly when mixed with sea-water than with fresh water, and that which has been rendered inactive by its former activity sets more rapidly when mixed with sea-water than when mixed with fresh water.

“The addition of a small quantity of sea-salt to Portland cement augments the strength of the mortar is kept in sea-water and the strength exceeds 1 or 2 per cent, the mortar disintegrates. When the cement was kept in sacks during several months, its strength during the early period

and fails to prevent the immersion of the cement in water.

Aluminous cements burned in air contain considerable alumina, and can bear an addition of 5 to 10 per cent of water without loss of strength. The strength of the cement always be limited to what is due to the aluminates.

ART. 22. INFLUENCE OF

Candlot has also made experiments upon the setting and hardening of cement in a solution of chloride of calcium, either saturated or not, in which the cement is mixed with water. He found that if the cement is immersed in water containing a few grammes of calcium sets more slowly than in pure water; while if the solution contains 100 to 400 grammes per litre

THE SETTING AND HARDENING

same solution it will not set or harden. If treated in the same way hardens and attains a hardness comparable to that of the original cement.

"Feeble solutions of chloride of lime have a appreciable effect upon cements, especially like certain grappiers cements, which consist solely of silicate of lime.

"From this the conclusions are as follows:

"1. That in Portland cement the chloride of lime in feeble proportions; that it acts as a retarding agent upon the set, but very little upon the hardening is caused by the silicate of lime.

"2. That in the Vassy cement the chloride of lime is the essential element, and determines the rate of setting and the hardening; the rôle of the silicate is important, especially during the setting.

"3. That in the phenomenon of setting and hardening, the quantities of the elements present are of great importance. The solution of chloride in presence of the aluminate of lime perfectly determines the rate of setting and the hardening.

with a solution of 100 to 400 grains very quickly. This set is according to temperature. This only occurs with an old cement the setting temperature is produced, and the integrates.

"Mortar of cement gauged with solution of CaCl is disintegrated immediately after setting, but 15 or 20 perhaps be submerged without loss.

"The action of a concentrated solution of Portland cement is due to the fact that it is attacked very energetically. It is very slightly soluble in a concentrated solution, but it is dissolved in large quantities in a concentrated solution.

"When a fresh cement is agitated in a solution of CaCl it dissolves not only the oxide of lime. The lighter the cement the more it will dissolve. When a cement is agitated with the concentrated solution

THE SETTING AND HARDE

characters, however, vary considerably. Some cements are so weak that they are unable to "take sand" without loss of strength. Weaker ones may not be able to take a weight of standard sand, while others will take with considerably more than the standard. All have a certain limit within which they become stronger by an admixture of good sand. It may be if mixed neat.

Cement mixed with sand always sets faster than neat cement, and requires less time to attain its maximum strength. As the proportion of sand to cement is increased, both the rate of setting and the final strength are diminished. The rate of setting, however, the strength of mortar increases with the period of time as the proportion of sand increases and as the time of observation increases. The strength due to larger proportions of sand is temporary. Thus a good Portland cement mixed with 1 part sand to 1 of cement at the

in mortar than that containing earth, or that composed of sand also usually gives greater strength if the sand is very fine. It is often difficult to judge the quality of sand without experiment. In some cases a small amount of coarse sand tends to injure the strength of the mixture in the sand of grains of medium size. The benefit through reducing the volume of sand.

A mortar composed of sand and cement possesses greater ability to adhere to a surface if coarse sand is used than if the sand is fine.

ART. 24. WATER USED

The quantity of water used in concrete is one of the most important considerations, provided there be sufficient water to hydrate the mass of cement, the quick setting of some Portland cements, changing the character of the concrete.

THE SETTING AND HARDENING

to reduce the mass to a plastic state, it will not be so thoroughly compact as when made by the same strength as when made by the same strength applied to it. But if just sufficient water is applied to it. But if just sufficient water is thoroughly dampen the mass, and then the mass is applied to expel the air and then the mass is strength will be greater than when made by the same strength. This difference, like the former, will increase to a certain extent with time, but the difference will be greater with the less quantity of water.

According to Prof. Le Chatelier, the strength of a crystalline mass varies with the mode of aggregation of the crystals. The strength of a single crystal is greater than the strength of a mass of crystals in contact with neighboring crystals. The strength of a mass of crystals in contact with neighboring crystals give greatest strength, and the strength of a mass of crystals in contact with neighboring crystals is more as the solution is more saturated.

The nature of the water used in the solution will affect the rate of setting. Water of crystallization will

Mortar kept immersed in water sets more rapidly than that kept in the air. Its strength is commonly much more than with mortar containing a large amount of sand. The strength gained although gained much more rapidly, is a final amount than that in fresh air. There is a very great difference between the two particular.

Cements with a low hydraulicity show a difference between sea and fresh water. Containing small quantities of salt they gain early strength in sea than in fresh water, but sooner disintegrated by the sea water.

ART. 25. EFFECT OF SEA WATER.

Cement mortar kept under water sets more rapidly in the early stages than in the air, but usually that kept

THE SETTING AND HARDENING

The nature of the water in which the mortar is to harden is of more importance than the nature of the water used in gauging. If the mortar is to be kept in air, the nature of the water becomes more important, although the variations in ordinary natural water do not produce any appreciable difference in the setting of mortar. Mortars gauged with soft water set in air.

ART. 26. EFFECT OF TEMPERATURE

The temperature of the water has an important bearing upon the time of setting. The higher the temperature, with the same proportions, the more rapid the set. Many mortars which take several hours to set when mixed with water at a temperature of 40° Fahr. will set in less than an hour if the temperature of the water be increased to 60° Fahr. The rate of setting is also affected by the nature of the water.

evaporation of the water from the surface may cause drying cracks in the mortar.

Quick-setting cements usually develop a high temperature during setting, due to the exothermic reaction which takes place. It has been found that the time occupied by the setting would be sufficient for subserving the period of advanced setting, without noting the stiffening of the mortar. In the case of slow-setting cements, however, the rise in temperature, change of temperature, if any takes place, is considerable; and the rise in temperature, if it takes place, may not always be the result of the setting reaction.

If the air at the time of mixing is cold, it may be cold to freeze the mortar before it has set while frozen; but most cements will set out, and but few of them will be affected by the cold in so far as their ultimate strength is concerned. Experiments * have, however, shown that a mortar may set while frozen if it remains in the cold for a sufficient length of time.

THE SETTING AND HARDENING

The temperature of the air in which the mortar is immersed during the setting has a very appreciable effect upon the rate of setting of many cements. This effect is very different material; with some the rate is retarded by keeping them hot as compared with the result in cold air or water; on the other hand, some are accelerated, while still others seem to be unaffected by hardening by the application of heat. It is to be found among cements of all kinds, seemingly independent of their hydraulic index usually show the same rate of hardening under the action of heat.

ART. 27. EFFECT OF AGE

The effect upon a cement of age before using depends upon the nature of the cement and the method of keeping. When kept in a closed so as to prevent the access of air, the effect is usually

usually becomes slower-setting without injury as to its ability to strength.

Light-burned cements, particularly, are affected in much greater degree. These cements not only become slower to set, but to the air, but commonly also lose power of hardening and become cases becoming puzzolanic materials. This may be restored by the addition of

The changes which occur in cements are attributed to the action of carbonic acid gas on the free lime which they may contain, and on the less stable compounds, as the silicates, which contribute to the rapid setting. These are plentifully in the light-burned materials.

THE SETTING AND HARDENING OF CEMENT

in a useless condition much of the active portion of the cement.

The rate of setting is affected by the fineness to which the cement is ground. In the case of finely ground cement the amount of water required is greater than in one coarsely ground. The rate of reactions which take place in the case of finely ground cement is greater than in the case of coarse cement. The rate of setting gauged with sea-water the rate of setting is greater by the fineness.

The hardening of cement is affected by fineness; that fine cement attains its ultimate strength more rapidly, but attains less strength than more coarsely ground. The rate of hardening of ground cements is more gradual than that of the ultimate strength greater.

Cement, when used, is compared with mortar and the attainment of strength is greater than mortar of neat cement is. The fineness of the cement is a factor in the rate of setting and the rate of hardening.

with the fineness, at least in the early period of setting.

The difference between coarse and fine cement is greater in the early period of setting. The fine cement hardens much more rapidly than coarse cement, especially in rich mixtures. The nearly the same ultimate strength is reached, but extreme fineness may not therefore be justified when the extra cost is considered.

CHAPTER

THE SOUNDNESS OF

ART. 29. PERMANENCE

THE permanence of any structure of cement is dependent upon the material after the setting and hardening to retain its strength and form for a definite period. Experiment has shown that from cement of good quality free from impurities, there is no loss in strength and hardness through years, or at least that there is no loss of strength with time; and that

in volume, together with an increase in transference the other way may result; but no distortion of form of the mortar will take place in either case if the cement is of good quality.

Sometimes cement when made hardens properly, and later, when exposed to the action of the atmosphere or water, cracks, or even entirely disintegrates. If the position deviates but slightly from the normal position of disintegration may not show for a long time, and proceeds very slowly, but is an element of considerable danger, and requires early detection in testing the cement.

The unsoundness of cement may be caused by defective composition, causing expansion to the action of expansions proceeding from within, or by exterior agencies which act on the cement susceptible to their influence, or to act by the method of making

THE SOUNDNESS OF

which gain strength very rapidly, and are quite apt to act in this manner, and as has been noted, the cement may not possess sufficient strength to resist, and the expansive action may cause disintegration.

The term *Permanence of Volume* is the power of the material to resist change of form or dimension in the body of mortar. It is synonymous with *soundness*, if by its power to resist disintegration. Most unsound cements fail by expansion under the action of expansives. However, the failure occurs by a gradual increase in the volume of mortar, without appreciable change in shape. In this case, the process being very slow, the mortar may remain in place for several months after the mortar

ART. 30. FREE

The presence of small quantities

burned at a low temperature that where the addition of the carbonate produced no nitrate caused swelling and The presence of free lime low index is therefore of special carefully guarded against by tion and complete reactions

The fineness of the cement of the free lime, as finely quicker than coarse grains to become hydrated before the cement be exposed to in a fine state will sooner be

If free lime be present in slaked before the initial set injury. If it becomes slaked period of hardening, the strength reduced, being rendered less In case this action be not su

THE SOUNDNESS OF CEMENT

These effects may afterward gradually disappear, but they probably have the effect of making the cement more easily attacked by external agencies. Cements of low hydraulic index, which gain strength during the early period of hardening, are more liable to contain appreciable quantities of free lime, frequently shown by a loss of strength when exposed extended over a considerable period of time.

Mortar kept under water is acted upon more rapidly than that exposed to dry air.

ART. 31. MAGNESIA

Free magnesia in cement acts very differently from lime. The action of magnesia, however, is less than that of lime, and for this reason it is less likely to be detected, because less likely to be detected before using. Prof. Le Chatelier found that a cement composed of lime and of magnesia with two

limit the amount of magnesia in Portland cement.

When mortar fails from this cause may not be shown for several days after it has set, and then in a comparatively short time, cracking, and disintegration follow.

Dr. Erdmenger made a large number of experiments upon the effect of adding small quantities of magnesia to Portland cement, and found that when exposed to water and contracted in air; that from 10 to 20 per centable percentages disintegrated, in a few weeks.

The fineness of the grains of magnesia, is important as affecting the result. Prof. Le Chatelier found that when finely ground produced swelling and cracking, but when coarsely ground of finely ground magnesia produced no distortion or cracking the mortar. The change in volume varies with the fineness of the grains.

THE SOUNDNESS OF CEMENT

in a work swelled and cracked, and showed that it contained 16 to 28 per cent of magnesia. Experiments were made by mixing 1 part of cement with 3 parts of sand, and swelling resulted. The same result was obtained for the manufacture of the cement with a smaller proportion of magnesia, which was in an uncombined state in the cement. In all cases the swelling occurred was found to be proportional to the amount of water available. When mixed with a small quantity and left in dry air no expansion occurred. It is therefore only dangerous in water.

Analyses of this cement are given as follows:

Silicious Sand.	Silica. %	Alumina. %	Iron. %	Lime. %	Magnesia.
.....	14.80	8.00	4.60	47.30	25.30
.....	18.30	2.95	3.60	44.80	20.35
0.35	20.70	3.35	3.65	43.30	28.00

This is not similar to the magnesian cement commonly used in the United States on

not been shown, however, that in the setting of these salts, contribute to the final strength of the process, it is certain cements continue to increase in period, the proportionate increase being much greater than for very moderate action.

ART. 32. ALUMINA

The exact rôle of alumina is a matter of considerable doubt. The basic aluminates to act like lime, being decomposed by the action of water upon these aluminates, being given off, with the result that the set of cements containing small quantities.

The disintegration of mortars

THE SOUNDNESS OF

with the aluminate may take place causing swelling and, if sufficient, the destruction of the mortar.

Aluminates should therefore be avoided to be used for mortar to be exposed to sea-water, as the sulphate of magnesia combines with the lime of the cement, forming the magnesian cement, which then combines with the aluminate, thus producing the expansive action. For this reason, aluminates are not considered desirable for use in mortar.

ART. 33. SULPHUR

The action of sulphur in cement is not very considerable, depending upon the state of the cement and the nature of the cement. The action of sulphate of lime for the purpose of cementing is slower has already been discussed. The action depends upon the presence of sulphur in sufficient quantity to take all the lime of the cement.

that of adding it afterward. The two seem to give analogous results. In burned cements it may be that the expansion is slow and hence slow in acting upon the expansion to be delayed.

Mr. Spachman, who has been in the production of Portland cement, concludes* that the danger of using too large proportions of sulphur is the likelihood of forming calcium sulphide during burning, which afterward, when the cement is exposed to the atmosphere, the sulphide is oxidized to a sulphate, changing the color of the cement to a reddish brown, and much of its activity, in setting, is lost at all. Mr. Spachman gives the formula SO_4Ca as what may be said to be the cause of the defect.

Prof. Tetmajer states that in the production of land cement sometimes a defect is observed, the fact that it is readily

THE SOUNDNESS

ART. 34. EXTERIOR

The principal exterior agencies which cause the destruction of mortar are low temperature or in humidity and the action with which it may be in contact. Physical agencies, such as the shock of frost and sand produced by a current, may overtax the strength of the mortar during the period of hardening, but they do not cause destruction through injury to the cement.

The effect of frost is to separate the mortar through the freezing of water in the pores. The resistance to it probably depends on the strength of the mortar and the amount of expansion.

The nature of the water to which the mortar is exposed is important because of the action of salts which it may

which forms a deposit in the
on the contrary, the dissolving
which traverses the mortar is al
a large quantity of carbonate
is carried off by the water."

In regard to the effect of tem
says: "At elevated temperatur
lose their water and are reduce
talline carbonate of soda, and
of the mortar. This is the ca
of lime, especially the alum
experiments are still necessary

"This dehydration occurs i
the well-known fact that certai
in water and attain high stren
to dry hot air disintegrate int

M. Candlot says that "alu
ject to alteration in surround
dryness and humidity, and als
temperature." It should be

THE SOUNDNESS OF

and perhaps ultimate destruction of
ent cements vary greatly in the extent
influenced by this cause, slow-setting
being ordinarily least and the slag cements

ART. 35. EFFECT OF SEA-WATER

The destructive effect of sea-water on
mortars which are sound in fresh water
due to the action of magnesium salts on
the cement, thus forming sulphate of mag-
nesium. The action of these salts on
cement mortars has already been discussed.

When mortar in sea-water fails by
is usually attributed either to the presence
of free lime or magnesia, or to the action
the cement. When the cement cements
expansive action is greatly intensified
compared with that in fresh water. This
explained by the presence of calcium

salts may be washed out, leaving the mortar to the action of the disintegrating water. The strength of any Portland cement may be destroyed by sea-water if used in such mortar. The continuous action of the magnesium salts is the cause.

The ultimate hardening of hydraulic mortar in fresh water, seems to depend upon the carbonic acid in forming a protective film. This film of the elements of disintegration resists the penetration of the water, and the renewal in the interior of the mortar becomes protected by the acid film, and effectually prevents further disintegration of salts.

M. Durand-Claye examined the wall where parts of it were destroyed. A large proportion of magnesia was found retained in the original mortar. The wall which were still sound were found to contain phosphoric acid was also increased.

THE SOUND.

fresh water were unaffected, but those in sea-water disintegrated in six months. Those in fresh water suffered a slight loss of lime and gain in magnesia, while those in sea-water suffered a loss of lime and gain in magnesia.

M. Alexandre also found that calcareous sand is attacked by sea-water, and that containing them may be destroyed. "is good."

CHAPTER

METHODS OF TESTS

ART. 36. OBJECT

TESTS of cement may have for their object the examination of the quality of the cement to determine its fitness for use, or the determination of the properties of the cement for the purpose of acquiring knowledge of its behavior under the conditions of use. Where experiments are made for the object, the tests to be applied must of course be dependent on the results to be investigated.

METHODS OF TEST

laws governing the action of examinations upon particular products take into account the variable conditions and the necessity for exact knowledge of the cement upon which the test is made.

The French Commission upon the Materials of Construction has the permanent laboratories systematically tested in the following analyses; fineness; specific gravity; homogeneity; time of setting; compressive strength; adhesive strength; porosity; permeability; resistance to sea-water; and yield of mortar.

Tests of cement, as common to all engineering work, have been made for the determination of the quality of the material for the use. Tests for this purpose are made according to some recognized standard, approximating the conditions of

cumstances of its use. The material varying so greatly in character under various conditions is evidence that no particular brand of cement whose character may readily be determined when of normal quality, and something can be predicted for the future from its behavior under test. A little, however, can be done in the present and for a new and unknown material to state a somewhat indefinite prediction of results.

Tests may be imposed which will secure good material, but often the subjecting of equally good or better material will be unavoidable until the character of the brands of cement are more fully known, which each should be subjected to.

The tests which are usually made to determine the quality of hydraulic cement are the following:

METHODS OF TESTING

in so far as it has been shown by subsequent tests to be sound, and subsequently maintaining such a high standard of quality as to produce cement which will do well in all the usual short-time tests is liable to result in a high index, or the addition of calcium hydroxide in times in the presence of free lime, is more likely to be unsound than one of low index.

The test for soundness or permeability is an important one, as giving an indication of the durability of the material; but, in the absence of tests, a knowledge of the usual and average results contribute greatly to the proper interpretation of the results.

The test for fineness is also important, as it indicates the power of the cement to take water and to set.

It was recommended by the Committee of the Society of Civil Engineers upon the subject of testing, that tests for quality be made of three most important tests—fineness, strength, and soundness; and this recommendation has been commonly followed in the United States.

and well burned. Variations in the weight, so that there may be a difference in the weight of various cement samples, well burned.

The apparent density is affected by the weight of the cement which the cement is ground; of the cement the greater its weight the greater its density. The weight test when employed combined with one for fineness of heavy weight by coarse grinding.

The test for apparent density is for the reception of material, and in result. It is, however, sometimes used in England, and is used in laboratories where a careful study is made of cement.

As the cement powder may vary so as to give very different weights it is necessary to use a uniform method in determining the

METHODS OF TESTING

measure (M) of 1 litre capacity and is provided with ears which catch up the two levers (L). The frame is raised on the turn of the hand-wheel by the cam mechanism of jars to the measure.

Above the measure a sieve (R) is supported by a system of levers which are hinged to the frame by the rod (V), giving two oscillations.

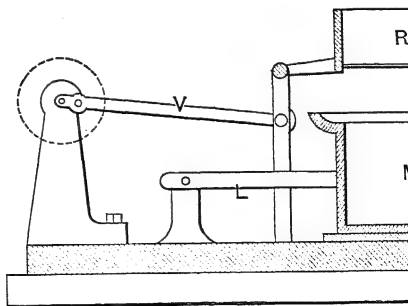
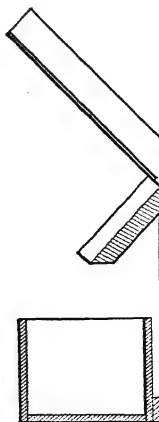


FIG. 1.

Inclined-plane Apparatus
 ratus for apparent density
 of forms, one of which, em
 mended by the Commissio
 Matériaux de Construction,



METHODS OF TESTING

The cement is poured in small quantities into the opening of the secondary plane so slowly that it does not fill the opening between the planes, until it is struck and weighed.

A single inclined plane of some length (50 cm.) is sometimes used, the material is poured upon the upper end and allowed to run down to the measure. It is said, however, that this gives less results than the double plane method, and requires extreme care.

German Funnel Apparatus.—This method is recommended by the German commission for the testing of materials, as was also the method of the American

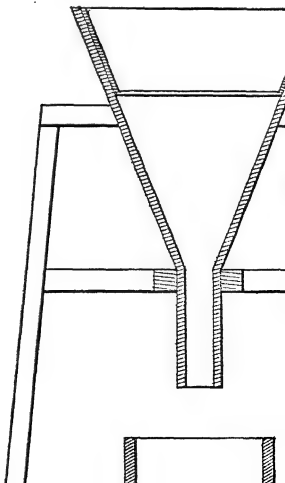
The funnel is formed of a hollow cone, vertical, as shown in Fig. 3. The height of the cone is 18 cm., its upper base is 20 cm. in diameter, terminated at the lower end by a cone 5 cm. high, with a lower base of 10 cm. The funnel is supported upon a stand 10 cm. above the table and

with a sieve fitting into the
measure below. The cement
gradually worked through the
then slides down the funnel
is filled.



METHODS OF TESTING

requires careful manipulation to secure a uniform rate of filling the measure and to avoid overcompacting. The inclined plane and funnel apparatus are found to give the most reliable results recommended by the commission



creased weight which would require grinding. The coarse particles are the hardest burned and therefore require the most cement. To accomplish this the cement is ground as fine as possible in order to obtain a fine, uniform, and workable powder. In Europe a No. 100 sieve per square centimeter is employed, which corresponds to the No. 180 sieve in the United States. The No. 100 sieve is 0.15 millimeter in diameter.

The Committee upon Cement of the American Society of Civil Engineers, after a long and careful study of the various methods of making weight tests, has recommended the use of the American method of making weight tests. This method is the most practical and it is not customary to make any test of this kind. The results of such tests under the American method are great, and the results are so good that the method of grinding that when a denser cement is used gravity is usually determined by the No. 100 sieve. In 1904 recommended the speci-

METHODS OF TESTING

method of determination which c
tests. The differences of specific gr
are, however, very small, and grea
the manipulation of the test in o
results.

The test for specific gravity is
immersing a known weight of th
which will not act upon it, and
through noting the volume of
making the test by this method i
the air-bubbles contained in the
eliminated, and that the volume o
cement particles only.

Schumann Volumenometer.—Seve
have been used for this purpose. C
volumenometer, shown in Fig. 5,
common. It consists of a gradu
of which is ground to fit closely int

In the use of the apparatus the
the flask and filled with benzine

through a long funnel, thus of the tube dry.

In some instances greater obtained by filling the appara



METHODS OF TESTING

of the apparatus the tube is turned upside down and the bulb filled with benzine. A glass plate is placed upon the tube, the apparatus is inverted, and a reading taken of the height reached by the liquid. A weighed quantity of cement is placed in the tube, which is turned upside down and the flask for the purpose. The flask is then inverted, the whole again inverted, the volume of the liquid in the tube. In order to remove bubbles the apparatus is shaken before a final reading so as to thoroughly mix the cement with the liquid.

This method is much more rapid than the Schumann volumenometer, but is not so satisfactory in result.

Le Chatelier's Volumenometer.—The apparatus is shown in Fig. 6. It consists of a flask the neck of which is drawn out into a tube 1 cm. in diameter and in the middle the tube enlarges into a bulb and then again continues with uniform diameter to the top. The flask to a point marked

weighing the apparatus before introduced. Or, this volume in the same manner as that of serving to prevent the cement tube.



METHODS OF TESTING

commonly somewhat volatile and should be kept low in order that the results should not be affected by the evaporation. When the apparatus is used the temperature should not exceed 100° F.

The committee on Uniform Tests of the American Society of Civil Engineers recommends the use of the Le Chatelier apparatus and that the apparatus be submerged in water in a bath of water.

The recommendation of the committee is as follows:

“Significance.—The specific gravity of the cement should be determined by underburning, adulteration, or by the use of the Le Chatelier apparatus. The adulteration must be in such a manner as not to affect the results appreciably.

“Inasmuch as the differences in specific gravity are usually very small, great care must be exercised in making the determination.

“When properly made, this test is the most reliable for underburning or adulteration.

“Apparatus and Method.—The specific gravity is most conveniently made by the use of the Le Chatelier apparatus.

the lower mark and 64 grs. (2.25 cc.) of the liquid, previously dried at 100° C. (212° F.) and the temperature of this liquid, is gradually lowered until the top of the funnel (the stem of which extends to the top of the bulb) until the upper mark is reached. The difference in weight between the cement and the displaced liquid, the original quantity (64 grs.) is the weight of the cement displaced 20 cu. cm.

“(2) The whole quantity of the liquid is poured out and the level of the liquid rises to the lower mark of the graduated neck. This reading plus the volume displaced by 64 gr. of the liquid is the weight of the cement.

“The specific gravity is then obtained by dividing the weight of the cement by the weight of the displaced liquid.

$$\text{Specific gravity} = \frac{\text{Weight of cement}}{\text{Displaced liquid}}$$

“The flask, during the operation, is held in water in a jar, in order to maintain a constant temperature of the liquid. The temperature of the water within 0.01° C. of the temperature of the liquid.

METHODS OF TESTING

land cement varies from about 3.05 to 3.15, usually above 3.05. Natural cements are usually above 3.10. An inferior limit is sometimes specified for Portland cement, and for Roman cement about 2.80. The test is often specified for natural cements.

The presence of the volatile elements, or of adulterations, or of incomplete burning, or of adulterations, or of adulterations, tends to lower the specific gravity. The presence of adulteration, however, needs to be detected, it becomes appreciable in the results. The chemical composition also to some extent affects the specific gravity, cements of low hydraulic value have low values. The age of the cement affects the specific gravity, aeration tends to reduce the specific gravity of fresh cement. The specific gravity, density, is not affected by the fineness.

This test is not commonly applied for the reception of cement upon the work.

that the cement will give good sand.

The fineness which should be a matter of relative economy; the larger the quantity of sand used with it. The coarse part may be considered as inert material. The amount of sand already mixed is a question therefore of relative fineness.

There is, however, some question of fineness. Some European authorities have adopted a fineness test. It is a question of fineness in the strength of the mortar, some extent with time, but the question is to be the really valuable part of the mortar. If the cement be omitted the cement loses its value.

Prof. Le Chatelier in his experiments on mortar found that, after the cement particles no trace is left of the cement.

With the lapidary, on the other hand,

METHODS OF TESTING

The Committee of the American Engineers in 1904 recommended with-
ness test as follows:

“*Significance.*—It is generally a-
particles in cement are practically
the extremely fine powder that
cementing qualities. The more fine
all other conditions being the sa-
will carry and produce a mortar o-

“The degree of final pulveriza-
receives at the place of manufac-
measuring the residue retained on
known as the No. 100 and No.
mended for this purpose.

“*Apparatus.*—The sieves shou-
20 cm. (7.87 inches) in diameter
high, and provided with a pan, 5
and a cover.

“The wire cloth should be wo-
brass wire having the following d-

Method.—The Committee, has reached the conclusion that the present method is not as practicable or efficient as the proposed method, and recommends the following method.

“The thoroughly dried and weighed sample is weighed and placed on the weighing pan and cover attached, is held in a vertical inclined position, and moved up and down at the same time striking the pan with the back of the other hand, at the rate of 100 times per minute. The operation is continued until less than one tenth of 1 per cent of the sample remains on the pan after a minute of continuous sieving. The residue is then placed on the No. 100 sieve and the residue is reported to the nearest tenth of 1 per cent.”

The British Standard Specification for Testing Engineering Standards Commission has the following requirements for fine

METHODS OF TESTING CEMENT

ART. 40. NORMAL CONSISTENCY

In order to secure uniform results in tests, as well as for rate of setting, it is essential that a standard consistency be adopted for the cement mortar. The effects upon setting and strength of varying the quantity of water used in making mortar have been discussed in Art. 24.

In making standard tests it is common to determine the quantity of water by trying to bring the mortar to a standard consistency which shall be uniform for all tests. Cements require very different quantities of water to reach the same consistency, and in making mortar the nature and condition of the materials may cause considerable variation. It should be noted that the consistency of paste does not depend upon the quantity of water used, but rather upon the manner and extent of working the

NORMAL CON

“Significance.—The use of water in making the pastes* setting, and briquettes are important and affects vitally the results.

“The determination consists of water required to reduce the of plasticity, or to what is usually consistency.

“Various methods have been determination, none of which satisfactory. The committee

“Method. Vicat Needle A (Fig. 8) of a frame bearing a at one end and at the other (0.39 inch) in diameter, the weighing 300 gr. (10.58 oz.). held in any desired position by a cator, which moves over a scale

METHODS OF TESTING

the operation by tossing it six times. The other, maintained 6 inches above the surface, was pressed into the rubber ring through the larger end (smoothed off, and placed on a glass plate) and the smaller end smoothed off. The paste confined in the ring rests under the rod bearing the cylinder, and is brought in contact with the surface and quickly removed.

"The paste is of normal consistency. It is pressed to a point in the mass of the ring below the top of the ring. Great care is taken to fill the ring exactly to the top.

"The trial pastes are made with varying amounts of water until the correct consistency is reached.

"The Committee has recommended a standard consistency of which is rather variable, so that variations in the amount of water used in the briquette is subjected in moulding. It is less with such a paste.

"Having determined in this manner the

can recommendations, the re
plunger shall sink to a point 6
tom of the paste for standard c

Another method somewhat us
by the French Commission i
Boulogne method. The metho

The paste is to be vigorous
to bring it to the required cons

"1. The consistency of the
sensibly if the mixing be con
the expiration of the required

"2. If a small quantity of
the trowel and allowed to fall
a height of 50 centimeters i
the trowel without leaving an
and after falling should app
without cracking.

"3. A small quantity take
into a round form until wa
should not stick to the hand

METHODS OF TESTING C

The Committee of the American Materials in 1904 suggest the percentage following table, the percentage for first determined by the test above given consistency.

PERCENTAGE OF WATER FOR CEMENT M CONSISTENCY.

Percentage Water for Neat Cement.	Proportions Cement to Sand by Weight.					Percentage Water for Neat Cement.	Prop	
	1-1	1-2	1-3	1-4	1-5		1-1	
18	12.0	10.0	9.0	8.4	8.0	30	16.0	1
19	12.3	10.2	9.2	8.5	8.1	31	16.3	1
20	12.7	10.4	9.3	8.7	8.2	32	16.7	1
21	13.0	10.7	9.5	8.8	8.3	33	17.0	1
22	13.3	10.9	9.7	8.9	8.4	34	17.3	1
23	13.7	11.1	9.8	9.1	8.5	35	17.7	1
24	14.0	11.3	10.0	9.2	8.6	36	18.0	1
25	14.3	11.6	10.2	9.3	8.8	37	18.3	1
26	14.7	11.8	10.3	9.5	8.9	38	18.7	1
27	15.0	12.0	10.5	9.6	9.0	39	19.0	1

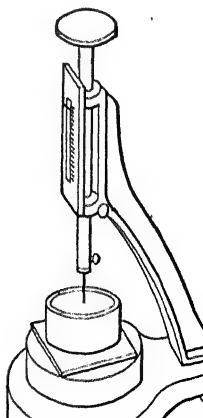
Testing for time of setting at two points in the process is called the beginning and end points are differently determined by the method of testing, and are not merely phenomena which admit of

A method of testing for setting is known as the General Gilmore and recommended by the American Society of Civil Engineers is still quite largely used in the testing of concrete in mixing cakes of neat cement of 6 inch diameter and $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick. The time is observed when the cake is no longer in diameter sustaining a weight of 100 lbs. This is taken as the beginning of setting. Observations with a needle are made at intervals of 10 minutes, using a weight of one pound until the cake is firm to bear this, when it is taken as the end of setting.

The time of setting is determined in practice by making small cakes

METHODS OF TESTING

arrangement is shown in Fig. 8. The
quette of neat cement is made in
or rubber mould 10 centimeters in
timeters high, placed upon a plate
cement being mixed to a plastic con
by the consistency test. The app
that a weight of 300 grammes m



and the time when the needle passes through the mortar is observed of setting; the time when the briquette without penetration of setting.

The accurate determination of points where the set is said to be of some difficulty, as the causes the needle to sink more than in others, and the circumference than in the center. However, these defects are not exercised in mixing the mortar not taken too near the edge of set is much less well defined of set, as there is usually which a very slight penetration insensibly to final disappearance for completion of the setting. The penetration becomes very small, so that the surface becomes practically horizontal.

METHODS OF TESTING

set'). The former of these is since, with the commencement of crystallization or hardening is so, disturbance of this process may prevent it is desirable to complete the operation of moulding or incorporating the material before the cement begins to set.

"It is usual to measure arbitrarily the end of the setting by the penetration of given diameters.

"*Method.*—For this purpose a test has already been described in previous work used.

"In making the test, a paste is moulded and placed under the rod graph 31; this rod, bearing the needle, 1 mm. (0.039 inch) in diameter weighing 300 gr. (10.58 oz.). The rod is fully brought in contact with the

the collection of cement on the surface of the needle, the penetration, while cement is being applied, is small and tends to increase the area and tends to increase the penetration.

"The determination of the time of setting is approximate, being materially affected by the quantity of the mixing water, the temperature of the air during the test, the humidity of the air, and the amount of moulding.

The time of setting is not a reliable test for neat cement, on account of the fact that a satisfactory test with sand is not possible, and is quite useless when sand is used, on account of the interference of the grains of sand with the needle. Rough tests of the time of setting by methods may readily be made for practical purposes, and are more nearly what may be used. The rate of setting is an indication of what the actual time of setting of different cements a mortar

METHODS OF TEST

employed: when the mortar weighs 400 grammes it is considered as set; it will sustain 10,000 grammes.

M. Feret has also proposed a test by using fine sand composed of a sieve of 75 meshes and are heated per linear inch, the test being made with the Vicat needle. This shows the effects of sand upon different mortars.

In making tests for rate of setting of the ingredients of the mortar, the atmosphere in which it is placed or water in which it is placed has a very large influence upon the results. A temperature of 60° to 65° Fahr. is usually used, although the air in the laboratory is at a higher temperature—perhaps 65°.

CHANGE OF TEMPERATURE

sets more quickly. The temperature of the cement may reach 15° or 20° and it may be quite imperceptible.

The change in temperature, the nature of the cement, and a number of other factors connect it with the soundness of the mortar. Especially the presence of free lime and the amount of water seem to be supported by facts. The results are very indefinite. Expansion is a dangerous action, and therefore dangerous. It is likely to cause increase in temperature.

The test for change in temperature is made by placing the mortar in a container and used with the Vicat needle, which is an opening to permit the insertion of a thermometer. This cover plate is placed in contact with the air or water, thus neutralizing the effect of temperature.

Some very slow-setting cements

CHAPTER

TESTS OF THE STRENGTH

ART. 42. METHOD

THE strength of mortar is tested in two ways: the tensile test is the one most employed, but compressive and crushing are often used.

The test for tensile strength is made by subjecting specimens of the mortar in mortar joints at the middle,—in the United States, a square,—and enlarging at the ends.

The transverse test is made by casting the concrete into bars, the bar is afterwards supported near its ends, and a weight is applied to its middle, causing it to break.

The proper conduct of a transverse test requires requiring care and experience on the part of the operator connected with the circumstances of the test, the work which have an important influence on the results. These are: the form of the specimen; the method of mixing and moulding; the temperature of the mortar; the time during which the mortar is kept during the hardening; the method of applying the stress; the position of the specimen; the operations are performed with care. In order to obtain uniform results it is essential that the same care be taken in all of these particulars. The results obtained in this direction during recent years have shown a disparity in the results of different tests, due mainly to differences in the method of conducting the test.

Every laborator seems to have his own method of conducting the test, which

TESTS OF THE STR

materials so as to obtain c
results.

“The first tests of inex
and careful persons are us
inaccurate, and no amount
the variations introduced b
the most conscientious obs
ently of minor importance, c
upon the results that it is
every particular, aided by
that trustworthy tests can be

Experience since the re
made has shown that the d
formity in such tests are n
imagined.

The variations in the res
the work of different exper
the same method and upon
quently very large, and o
between the acceptance a

News, March 5, 1896) show that the result was but 30% of the highest. The results were quite evenly distributed between the two groups. Each result was the average of three tests. The results agree fairly well among themselves.

If the results of experience in different laboratories vary so much, the results of tests made by less experienced men, and of material upon temporary specifications be framed which shall be based upon the experience of the material? Evidently, the results of tests with hand-work, the inspection of the material, and the specifications drawn up by the practice of the laboratory. It is evident that some means be devised by which the tests may be made automatically, and the factor eliminated in so far as possible.

In standard tests it is customary to maintain a constant temperature of 60° F. in the laboratory in which

TESTS OF THE

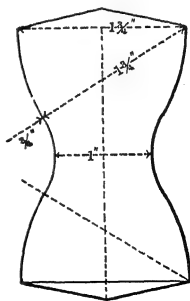
is employed. In the are each two inches although sometimes a generally the standard seven centimeters in le

The French "Com Materials," however, for compression specimens to so fill the corners of ous briquettes, and th as preferable. They briquettes obtained by crushing test.

For transverse test used. Different experient dimensions, and t ably be called a stan the adoption of this t the acceptance of m test-piece of a section

meters. The middle section mm. thick, giving a cross-section

Comparative tests of bricks that the English form gives higher the difference being common much as 30% to 40% of the be accounted for by the fact a sudden change of cross-section of weakness, and while the gradually from the ends to



TESTS OF THE STR

meters. The use of these s
as it admits of lighter appar
because greater uniformity i
the briquette. The work a
that less mortar is required
larger sections, so that more
from each mixing.

The size of the breaking
effect upon the strength,
much higher strength per v
ones. Thus for neat ceme
1 inch square to one 2 inc
to lessen the tensile strengt
one half that of the smaller
has shown that the strength
perimeter of the section th
the interior may be removed

M. Alexandre made a n
the relative strengths of b
He found that large briquet

"While the form of the former Committee of the Society of Civil Engineers, this Committee is not prepared to recommend anything other than rounding off of the corners to a small radius.

"The moulds should be made of some equally non-corroding metal in the sides to prevent rusting.

"Gang moulds, which produce several briquettes at one time, are not recommended, since the greater complexity of the moulds tends to produce greater variation in the results.

"The moulds should be used in a dry state.

ART. 44. STANDARD TESTS.

Tests with sand may be made for judging the value of the material, and the probable strength of mortars which may obtain in practice.

TESTS OF THE S

- obtained by washing and obtainable, sifting the sand per square centimeter, the particles, and by removing by means of a sieve of 12 the finest particles. The sieve shall be 0.38 millimeters. "The German Commission on Methods specified Freienwalde sand."

In France both artificial and natural sand are used. The Commission on Methods use of natural sand. The sizes:

1. Sand which passes openings of 0.5 mm. and is retained by those of 1.5 mm.
2. Sand which passes openings of 1.5 mm. and is retained by those of 2.5 mm.

STANDARD

"The Committee recognized the standard quartz now generally used on account of its high percentage of voids, its freedom from settling in the moulds, and its uniformity. It spent much time in investigating various sands which appeared to be available.

"For the present, the committee has selected natural sand from Ottawa, having 20 meshes per linear inch, and another having 30 meshes per linear inch. The diameters of 0.0165 and 0.0105 are half the width of the opening in the sieve. It passed the No. 20 sieve 95 per cent when not more than 1 per cent passed the No. 30 sieve. One minute continuous sifting.

"The Sandusky Portland Cement Co., Sandusky, Ohio, has agreed to furnish the sand of this sand, and to furnish

TESTS OF THE S

nature of the sand; its fineness is determined by the amount retained by various sieves. The sand to be examined under a given load should be of a given weight of a unit volume. Tests of the tensile strength of sand to be tested as compared with standard sand are of little value, the value of the sand to be tested is determined by the mortar.

ART. 45. METHODS

The wide differences of results of tensile tests made by different methods are mainly due to differences in the methods used. Probably if the other standard method were used as that of tension tests, the differences would be observable in the work of not only in the work of

the method of forming the briquet used in placing the mortar in the

In making briquettes by hand are employed corresponding to of the mortar. The plastic method employed, being used in England and United States, while the dry method is used in many.

The report of the French commission on tests in 1892 recommends the following

"The moulds are placed upon a polished metal which has been washed with an oiled cloth. Six moulds are used for gauging if the cement be slow-setting and quick-setting. Sufficient material is placed in each mould to more than fill it. The material is pressed into the mould with the fingers and the side of the mould tapped with a trowel to assist in disengaging the material. The excess of mortar is then removed with a trowel over the top of the mould so as to

TESTS OF THE STRENGTH

removing them from the mould to test the regularity of their formation."

A method somewhat in use in France is that proposed by M. Candolle, of the Commission upon Methods of Testing, for use with sand mortars. It is as follows:

"Sufficient mortar is gauged to form briquettes, requiring 250 grammes of cement and 100 grammes of normal sand. The weight necessary exceeds by 30 grammes that required for bringing the cement alone to *normal* consistency."

The mortar is prepared in the following manner: forming the briquette the mould is placed on a glass plate and a guide fitted above it to regulate the height as the mould and a height of 12 millimetres.

"180 grammes of mortar are placed in the mould and distributed by means of a metallic pestle weighing 100 grammes with a base of the form of the briquette. If the less dimensions, the mortar is stronger and stronger upon

Following are the specifications of German Cement Mortar.

“On a metal or thick-glass plate, and on paper soaked in water are laid five moulds wetted with water and 750 grammes of standard mortar thoroughly mixed dry in a mortar. The moulds are then wetted with meters of fresh water are mixed for five minutes. When the moulds are at once filled to be rounded on top, the mortar is rounded. By means of an iron trowel, the mortar is rounded on the sides, then harder into the mortar. The mortar is elastic and water flushes to the surface. At least one minute is necessary for the mortar and pounding in of the mortar. The test-pieces of the same density at the different temperatures are now cut off with a knife and

TESTS OF THE STRENGTH

for five minutes. The forms are then removed and the specimen is allowed to proceed as for hand-work with sand.

"The mould can only be taken out when the concrete has sufficiently hardened.

"The quantity of water for setting cements must be increased.

The rules recommended by the American Society of Civil Engineers for the following method of making briquets are as follows:

MIXING.

"All proportions should be stated in terms of the quantity of water to be used should be stated in terms of the dry material.

"The metric system is recommended for the convenient relation of the gramme and the litre.

"The temperature of the room should be as near 21° C. (70° F.) as possible and should be maintained.

"The sand and cement should be mixed in a dry state. The mixing should be done in a dry state.

by the aid of a trowel. As absorbed, which should not re the operation is completed the hands for an additional similar to that used in kne affords a convenient guide During the operation of mixi tected by gloves, preferably

MOUL

“Having worked the past consistency, it is at once pla

“The Committee has been results with the present mo tion of machine moulding i types permit of moulding b and are not practicable with recommended.

“*Method.*—The moulds s material pressed in firmly w off with a trowel without ra

TESTS OF THE STRENGTH

ing briquettes by hand: first, the thoroughly worked in gauging; French rules require that it shall be at least five minutes, only sufficient compared at once for five or six briquettes. Bubbles must be well worked out of the moulds. The neglect of this causes much of the irregularity which is the work of inexperienced operators.

It is perhaps easier to secure uniformity with the dry than with the plastic method. The density of the hammered briquette is greater than the strength. The plastic method, however, is nearly with the conditions of the dry method in practice.

Even with the most experienced operators, differences in the amount of work done in forming the briquette, and the conditions which cause wide variations in results.

In order to secure good results, it is necessary that the briquettes

"A moist closet or chamber for the use of the damp cloth should be provided. Covering the test pieces with a damp cloth as commonly used, because the test pieces are equally, and, in consequence, the test pieces are maintained under the same conditions. If a closet is not available, a cloth should be uniformly wet by immersing it in water and should be kept from direct contact with the test pieces by means of a wire screen or similar device.

"A moist closet consists of a box, either of wood or a metal-lined wooden box, covered with felt and this box of the box is so constructed that the sides are provided with cleats on which to place the bricks to keep the air in the closet uniform.

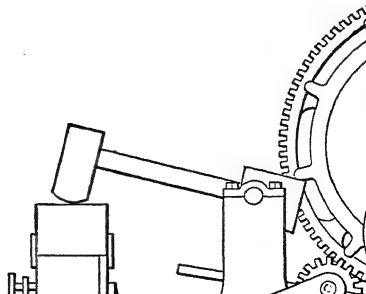
"After twenty-four hours the test pieces for longer periods should be maintained as near 21°C . (70°F) as possible. The test pieces should be stored in tanks or pans

TESTS OF THE STRENGTH

No entirely satisfactory system has as yet been devised. In Europe commonly employed for moulding mixing is done by hand in the ordinary

In Germany and Switzerland compressive tests are made by machine, tensile specimens. The machine is either the Bohmé hammer or the

The *Bohmé hammer*, designed at Charlottenburg Experiment Station
11. It consists of an arrangement



upon the personality of the method. The arrangement is such that its operation must give time for the hammer being caught on the next stroke. If the force of the blow to make a briquette is too great

The rules of the Association of Machine-makers specify this machine in order to obtain concordant machine-making is necessary. 1000 grammes of cement and 1200 grammes thoroughly mixed dry in a vessel of water are added thereto, thoroughly mixed for five minutes. 100 grammes are placed in the guide-mould, and the mould is placed on the bed-plate under the pounder. The lower is placed in the form of a trip-hammer one hundred and fifty grammes. A hammer weighing 2 kilograms is placed on the guide-mould and follower the

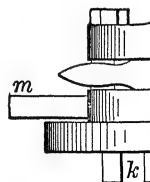
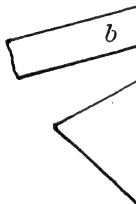
TESTS OF THE ST

the number of blows by re
work to be done upon a
kilogrammeter of work per
which the mortar is compo
ject to the same limitation
hammer, in being very slo
pensive in first cost of appa

Canadian Method.—In
in England, the method h
the mortar quite soft, usin
with machine-mixing and
under light pressure—20
surface of the briquette.
for strength than the ordin
portant provided the resul
fications are made to agree

A number of tests made
McGill University seem t
capable of yielding uniform
tions of the individual test
series is concerned. The m

is very simple. A v
section conforms to th



TESTS OF THE STRENGTH

in the cylinder may be subjected to a pressure of 175 lbs. per square inch. The cylinder is raised above the bed-plate a distance equal to the thickness of the briquette (1 inch) by means of a triangular block (*l*) having the same cross-section as the briquette. The cylinder is then to bring either of these holes below the surface of the one hole is in this position, however, the cylinder at one side, and the briquette, when it has been pressed into it can be removed by a lever (*m*) and guided by a guide. After the pressure is used the briquette is to be handled as soon as lifted from the cylinder, once removed and placed on the bed-plate.

“In practical working it has been found that the machine makes briquettes as rapidly as the hand.

This machine may be found useful in all cases where large numbers of briquettes are required for the purpose of comparing cements, as it greatly lessens the time required to make the briquette. It is to be of

as appliances for moulding briquettes shows uniform results may be obtained from briquettes under a single application of a steady

method may be applied much more rapidly than the hammer method, with about as good results, and the results of different operators much more uniform than can be obtained by hand-work, although the deviations from the mean in the work of a single operator may be as great or greater than in the hand-

work of neat cement, machine-mixed, and moulded under a pressure of about 500 lbs., upon the surface of the briquette, give good results when the averages of the work of men are compared, and small variations in the pressure are not important in the results.

For sand mortar, one part cement to three parts sand under a pressure of 1000 to 1500 lbs. is desirable to compact the mortar to form homogeneous briquettes and give uniformity in the results.

For the best results the mortar should be gauged to a consistency that the water begins to ooze out under a pressure, the cakes being reduced to a semi-solid condition, and becoming too soft to handle before

the apparatus for making briquettes by this method is arranged, but no satisfactory method of manipulating the briquettes so as to produce them with reasonable

of securing good results under careful manipulation are too slow or clumsy in operation and require careful management to make them desirable for



FIG. 13.

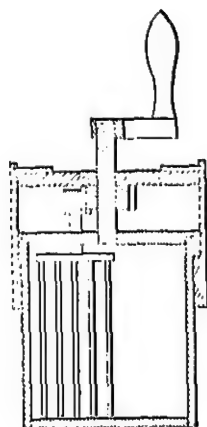


FIG. 14.

use. The American Society Committee in 1904
t as follows upon this matter:

he Committee, after investigation of the various
anical mixing-machines, has decided not to recom-
any machine that has thus far been devised, for
ollowing reasons:

(1) The tendency of most cement is to 'ball up' in
achine, thereby preventing the working of it into a
ogeneous paste; (2) there are no means of ascertain-
when the mixing is complete without stopping the

or tensile strength is commonly made by a briquette in a pair of clips which catch its ends. It is attached to a machine by which the load is applied. When the briquette breaks the briquette may be weighed. In order to get uniform results it is necessary that the load be so applied as to bring the tension axially

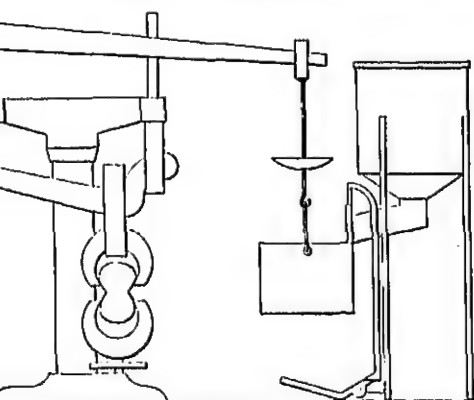


FIG. 15.

all section of the briquette, and also that the variation of the load shall be always the same. In various types of testing-machines in use, it is unnecessary to enter into any detailed description of them here.

The pendulum machine, shown in Fig. 15, consists of a weight suspended from the framework carrying the clips which hold the specimen and at the

of Michaels. In the Fairbanks machine the shot is weighed and the stress determined by the same beam in breaking the specimen, the bucket being hung at the other end of the beam from that used in breaking the specimen, and the weight found by means of a sliding poise, the beam being graduated to read stress upon the scale.

The *Richlé Machine*, shown in Fig. 16, is an ordinary beam machine in which the load is brought upon the specimen by means of the lower hand-wheel, while the poise is moved along the scale-beam by the upper hand-wheel. In testing a briquette both wheels must be turned simultaneously and the scale-beam be kept horizontal.

The *Olsen Machine*, shown in Fig. 17, is similar in principle to the above, but differs somewhat in detail. This machine has been modified by Prof. Porter in 1882, constructed for Lafayette College, by adding a second lever below the clips, through which the stress is applied by means of water flowing into a bucket attached to the end. The stress is measured by the weight sliding along the upper scale-beam as in the ordinary machine, but the weight is moved automatically by means of an arm in contact at the end of the beam.

Various modifications of these machines and others of more complicated type are frequently employed. Nearly all of the machines in common use may give good results in practice. In selecting a machine, however, those are

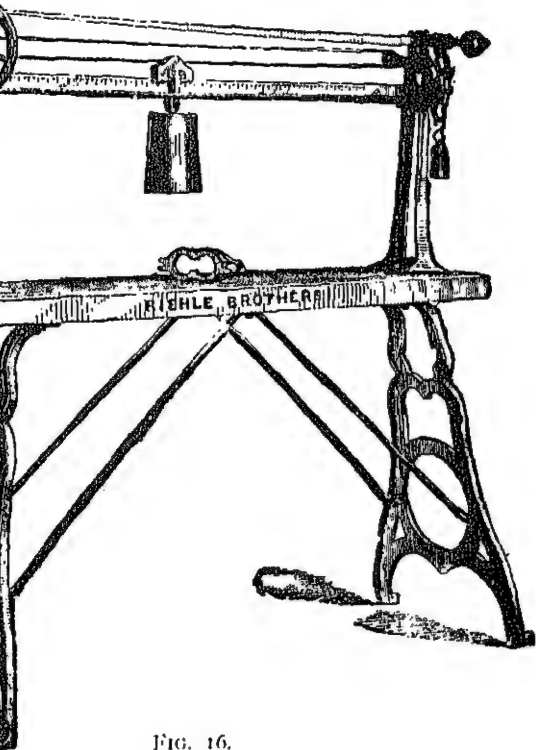


FIG. 16.

that the stress upon the briquette shall be
must be exercised in properly centring the
the clips, and the form of the clip must
it shall not clamp or bind upon the head
ette, but may be free to adjust itself to an

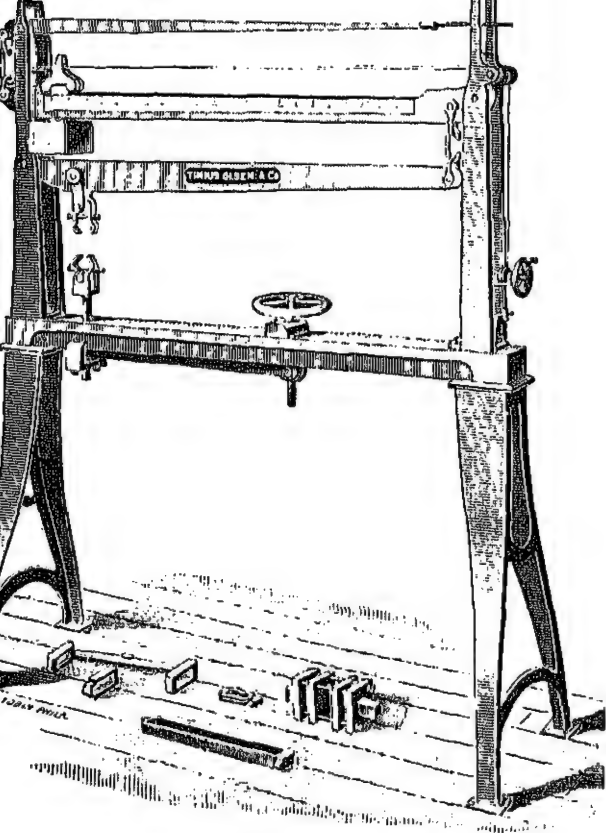


FIG. 17.

yet as small as possible to admit of its more free adjustment. The suspension of the clips, as is, by conical bearings permits them to turn so as

en briquette. As here given it is approved
ssion des Méthodes d'Essai des Matériaux
1," as giving very satisfactory results.

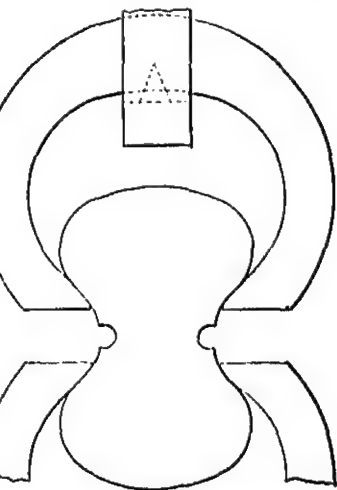


FIG. 18.

quette used in the United States and Eng-
ms have been used for clips. Fig. 19
adopted by the Committee of the American
Engineers in 1885. This form does
ent bearing-surface for good results, as
likely to break on account of the crushing
f the briquette at the point of contact.
wn in Fig. 20 has been much used, but
tage of clamping the head of the briquette
unless great care is used may cause the

points of contact irregularly to the small section, break due to twisting may often be a centre break, the irregularity show only in the results.

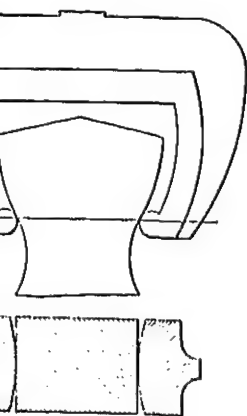


FIG. 19.

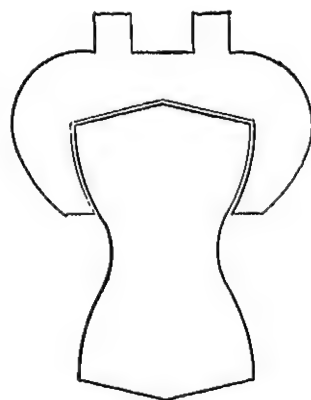


FIG. 20.

form of clip shown in Fig. 21 is recommended by committee of the American Society of Civil Engineers

This form is a decided improvement over the others, but seems to give rather too small area of contact between the briquette and clips for the best results.

It avoids twisting the briquette and permits free adjustment to axial stress.

In order to prevent crushing at the points of contact and to permit more free adjustment Mr. W. R. Cockfield proposed * a rubber bearing, as shown in Fig. 22.

* *Engineering News*, Dec. 20, 1890.

compliance have been proposed for the accurate placing of briquettes, or to prevent the more free movement of the clips to the direction of stress, by

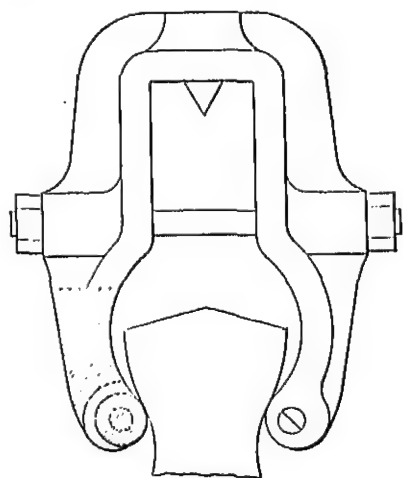


FIG. 22.

ate for the exact placing of the briquette, by using the clips at the upper corners. These clips do not, however, seem to be necessary. The Committee of the American Society of Civil Engineers in 1904 made the following recommendations for tensile strength:

may be made on any standard machine. A clip is recommended. This clip is to be

pieces should be broken and the pieces
from the water. Care should be observed in
loading the briquette in the testing-machine, as cross-
breaks, produced by improper centring, tend to lower
breaking-strength. The load should not be applied
suddenly, as it may produce vibration, the shock
which often breaks the briquette before the ultimate
strength is reached. Care must be taken that the clips
on the sides of the briquettes be clean and free from
oil or sand or dirt, which would prevent a good bearing.
The load should be applied at the rate of 600 lbs. per
min. The average of the briquettes of each sample
should be taken as the test, excluding any results
which are manifestly faulty.

ART. 48. COMPRESSIVE TESTS.

The compressive strength of cement-mortar is much
greater than its tensile strength, and as it does not seem
to give a better indication of value, while more difficult
of satisfactory determination, and also requires heavier
apparatus, it is not usually employed as a test of quality
or acceptance of material. The compressive test is,
however, valuable for purposes of comparison, and is
useful as an addition to the showing made by the tensile
test. In the European experiment stations it is customary
to test all cements under compression as well as tension.

cause the material to spread laterally by the sides, failure usually occurring by shearing inclined at about 30° with the vertical, and conical blocks at the middle.

If the specimen is small in height the resistance is per unit area than if it be higher, and for blocks the resistance increases with the size. The cube is commonly employed for this purpose, but the cylinder is sometimes preferred, on account of the ease with which homogeneous specimens may be prepared because of the liability of the corners of the cube to chafe off under comparatively light pressure.

The standard piece in Europe is a cube with edges 10 centimeters long, moulded under the hammer, and it is required that the pressure be always applied to opposite faces of the cube, that is, on the faces parallel to the surface of the mould, in forming

At a conference at Berlin, however, recommendation was made of blocks 5 square centimeters in area, for use as tensile specimens.

The "Commission on Methods of Testing Materials" made the following recommendations:

For the determination of compressive strength the half-briquettes and the half-cylinders are to be used. Each half-briquette is to be crushed separately, and the sum of the two results is to be taken as the strength of the specimen.

In the case of half-briquettes, cylinders 45 milli-

stone surface."

The testing apparatus should be so arranged that pressure may be continuously applied at such a rate as to crush the half-briquette in one or two minutes."

For tests having for their object the comparison of materials with other materials, it is provisionally recommended to employ the cube, with faces of 50 square centimeters in area, placed upon one side. These tests will thus conform in a general way to the rules adopted for the tests of other materials."

In the United States it is common to employ 2-inch cubes for this purpose, although some laboratories use cubes of about the same area and somewhat greater height.

In making compressive tests of cement, any of the ordinary lever or hydraulic machines in common use, having a capacity of 40,000 to 50,000 lbs., is usually sufficient. It is desirable that the load be applied as uniformly as possible, as the result will be more or less affected by unsteadiness or shocks.

It has been proposed to employ punching tests instead of crushing the entire specimen. This method has been employed for a number of years in the laboratory at Paris, France. A punch five square centimeters in section (approximately 1/4 inch square) is employed, and it is claimed that the results are more regular than those obtained by crushing the entire specimen, while requiring less force in the testing-machine. The "Commission des Méthodes d'Essai des

the strength of mortar under transverse seldom employed as a measure of the quality of material, but are frequently made with a view to testing the action of the material in service.

It has often been made to substitute the transverse tensile test in the reception of material. These questions have usually been based upon the results of the test and of the apparatus with which it is carried out. All that is necessary, after the test is made, is the arrangement of a couple of knife-edges, upon which the ends of the bar may be rested, and a weight brought upon the top of the bar. The ordinary test by tension is, however, so simple, and there seems to be little if any advantage in making a change, although the transverse test is an equally effective means of determining the strength of material. Much less is known as to what the transverse test would be, and its use in specifications would be preceded by experiments to obtain proper values for the loads to be required, while the errors due to the method in making briquettes would exist the same as in the other.

Land-Claye made a large number of tests to determine the tensile and transverse strength for both neat and mortars in small test-pieces. He used test-pieces 5 centimeters square and 12 centimeters long, and compared the results with the ordinary 5-square-centimeter sec-

of section), were found to average a little more than the unit stress for tension. The use of this instance is of course inexact, as it assumes the material to have the same coefficient of elasticity for tension and compression, and to be strained only to the elastic limit. As all the specimens are of the same size, however, the results are material for purposes of comparison.

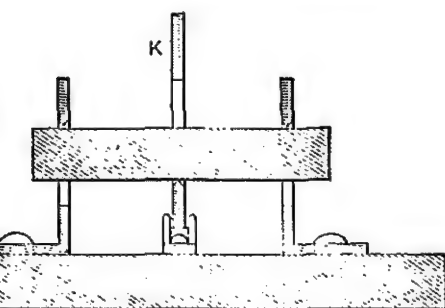


FIG. 24.

In the transverse test the most common method is to provide supports for the ends of the bar and to apply the weights directly upon its middle. Care should be taken to guard against the crushing of the material at the knife-edges; a good plan is to use small plates between the knife-edge and the surface of the specimen to distribute the load.

When a tension-machine is in use, a transverse attachment is usually added, by which both tests may be made with the same machine. Fig. 24 shows such an attachment

small specimens for transverse tests it is difficult to handle the test pieces without and, in general, if fairly accurate results the tensile test is more easily handled.

FACTORS AFFECTING STRENGTH TESTS.

pointed out small differences in the manipulations and surroundings of the material during the test, as an important influence upon the results of the strength of cement.

—The effects of variations in temperature are different for different cements. In general, mixing at a high temperature of air and materials results in a greater strength being obtained by mixing at a high temperature, the increase being greater for quick-setting materials. It is recommended to prescribe a temperature between 65° and 75° for standard tests. Lowering this temperature will sometimes increase the strength on some cements 20%, while increasing the temperature may correspondingly diminish the strength. For rather quick-acting materials, mixing with water at a high temperature will practically ruin the mortar.

On the other hand, within the limits of ordinary air temperatures, briquettes kept at high temperatures during the period of hardening usually show greater strength than those kept at low temperatures. There is,

ing briquettes is determined for standard tests by using the quantity necessary to give normal consistency, as described in Art. 40. Variations in the quantity of water may very materially affect the strength upon short-time tests. As a rule the use of a comparatively dry mixture, provided the paste be thoroughly mixed and well compacted in the moulds, gives higher results in short-time strength tests than if a wet mixture be employed. This difference may largely disappear in tests made after longer periods of time. With some quick-setting materials the quantity of water given by the normal consistency test is abnormally large, and changes materially the action of the cement from what it would be with less water. In one instance a cement mixed with about 25% water gives a rather dry paste, setting in ten or twelve minutes, and giving fairly good strengths at one and seven days. For normal consistency, this cement requires over 40% of water, and mixed with this quantity, sets in about six or seven hours, and has no strength at one day and very little in seven days. After six months both samples show good strength. Where such materials are to be used some modification of the method is desirable.

Moisture.—Cement briquettes kept damp during setting and the early period of hardening show much greater strength than those kept in dry air. It is usual to place the briquettes in a damp-closet for the first 24 hours

the first period. This requires considerable care to get good results, as unequal or premature drying of cloths may materially affect the results of

of variations in the moisture conditions are not true for all cements, some natural cements acting differently from the usual rule, and not requiring a special sphere for the development of early strength. When long time tests are made the greatest strength is developed by taking the briquettes from the sphere keeping dry during the later period.

of Water of Immersion.—The nature of the water in which briquettes are kept has been found to have no effect on their strength. A difference of 40% has been obtained between briquettes cured in water and in water which had stood in the sphere a long period without change. The water should be frequently renewed when running water is available.

The presence of carbon dioxide in the water seems to be a proper hardening of the mortar. In distilled water briquettes will disintegrate. Nearly any water which has been well aerated will give good results.

value of a cement as showing the possession of active elements. There are, however, different cements which act at different rates, and it is unwise to classify cements according to strength alone. The strength developed by cement in a test extending over a short period of time is not necessarily an indication of the strength that may be attained by it during a longer period, unless the normal action of the particular material be known. That which is strongest at first may not continue to be the strongest.

The development of good strength soon after the setting of the mortar is a desirable attribute in most engineering work, and the probability of the material being sound is greater where it shows a fair early strength. Therefore it is usually wise to specify that the cement shall develop a fairly good strength on a short-time test, and there is no object in requiring extremely high values.

Mr. Faija recommends that the gain in strength between the 7- and 28-day periods be considered rather than the absolute early strength in determining the probable subsequent gain in strength. This is doubtless a better guide than the usual one, but it is not usually practicable to require tests extending over a period of 28 days, and in many instances it would be misleading, if comparison of different cements were attempted.

Prof. Unwin gives a formula for the strength at any period, $y = a + b(x - 1)^n$, in which y is the strength at x weeks after mixing, a the strength at end of one week,

s the value $n = 1/3$ for Portland cement in
l shows that the formula gives values well
with the results of tests in many instances.
however, accurate for general use, as is shown
e when applied to many long-time tests.
es to be required in specifications need to
l, especially with the natural cements, to
the particular kind of cement to be used,
th the practice of the laboratory.
rge quantities of cement are regularly em-
the same men continuously make the tests, .
paratively simple matter to conform the speci-
the work of the laboratory so as to get reliable
of the value of the material. A very large
the testing for reception of material must,
done upon detached works, where temporary
are to be used and inspectors employed
usion. In these cases it is a difficult matter
specification which shall give good results,
operator can himself first be calibrated.
ults of tests in the permanent laboratories
e higher strength for the same material than
obtained on an ordinary outside test, espe-
a comparatively inexperienced man. It is
inferred, however, that the highest results
rily the outcome of the greatest skill. As
most expert and reliable operators get only
strength for the best material.

and it to one of the laboratories known to obtain normally high strengths, and thus get results which to show error on the original test.

The American Society for Testing Materials has recommended the following as the range for minimum values of specifications for tensile strength of briquettes 1 square inch in section.

NATURAL CEMENT.

Neat Cement.	Strength.
Specimens in moist air.	50-100 lbs.
Specimens (1 day in moist air, 6 days in water)	100-200 "
Specimens (1 " " " " 27 " " ")	200-300 "
One Part Cement, Three Parts Standard Sand.	
Specimens (1 day in moist air, 6 days in water)	25-75 "
Specimens (1 " " " " 27 " " ")	75-150 "

PORTLAND CEMENT.

Neat Cement.	Strength.
Specimens in moist air.	150-200 lbs.
Specimens (1 day in moist air, 6 days in water)	450-550 "
Specimens (1 " " " " 27 " " ")	550-650 "
One Part Cement, Three Parts Sand.	
Specimens (1 day in moist air, 6 days in water)	150-200 "
Specimens (1 " " " " 27 " " ")	200-300 "

In specifications it is usually desirable to require showing a fair degree of strength rather than very low values. The latter are if anything less likely to indicate good material and unnecessarily limit competition.

CHAPTER VII.

TESTS FOR SOUNDNESS.

ART. 52. ORDINARY TESTS.

is the most important quality of a cement, the power of the cement to resist the disintegrating effects of the atmosphere or water in which it is used. Unsoundness in cement may vary in degree, and show itself quite differently in different materials. Cement in which the unsoundness is slight is apt to become distorted and cracked in shape, when small cakes are placed in water. In cases where the disintegrating action is slower, no visible change of form, but after weeks or months, the cakes will lose coherence and soften until entirely broken up.

A method in common use for testing unsoundness is to make small cakes or pats of neat cement, usually 1 1/2 inches in diameter and 1/2 inch thick, and place them in a dish of glass, and keep them in air or water, as the case may be, carefully watching them to see if they show any signs of distortion or surface cracks, which indicate a tendency to disintegration.

Modern standard specifications require that the

any are being set, for a period of 28 days, when, if no cracks or distortions appear, the cement is considered sound.

The cakes, especially those of slow-setting cement, must be protected against draughts and sunshine until final setting. This is best accomplished by keeping them in a covered box lined with zinc or under cloths. In this manner the formation of heat cracks is avoided, which are generally formed in the centre of the cake, and may be taken by an inexperienced person for cracks formed by blowing."

The French Commission upon Methods of Testing Materials recommend both a pat test and test of the amount of swelling which takes place in the mortar, as follows:

Cold Tests.—(a) For this test the cement paste is pressed into a pat about 10 centimeters in diameter and 2 centimeters thick, made thin at the edges.

Immediately after being made the specimens intended for tests in water are immersed in the same conditions as the briquettes used for tensile tests.

The specimens intended for use in the air are at once exposed to the conditions indicated for briquettes."

The condition of the specimens is observed at the same periods of time employed in making tensile tests (days, 28 days, 3 months, 6 months, 1 year, etc.).

(b) To measure the increase in volume of the mortar neat cement after prolonged immersion in cold water, a bar of cement is employed 80 centimeters in length and

of the bar of mortar." (See Fig. 25.)
of testing by measuring the variation in
ed to some extent in Germany. Methods
his test are described in Art. 53.

nt in testing soundness in this manner
ould be continued over as long a period
d many cases of unsoundness are not
a 28-day test. Instances have been
ch mortar in the form of 2-inch cubes
disintegrated within two years, where
ng was not observable for three months
test. The most common and dangerous
ndness are probably discovered by the
It may be observed, however, that the
gration of mortar is not oftener observed
tions is probably due more to the general
the cement supplied by the best makers,
uent stability of work regardless of the
ortar, than to the efficiency of the test for

of water to be used in mixing mortar
ndness is about the same as that used
ngth, although a variation in the quan-
ll limits does not seem to materially
results. Care must be taken that the
moist during setting and previous to
lder that they may be free from drying
s account the French commission con-

gh apparently quite sound in water if first allowed
n air.

n mortar is to be used in sea-water, the pats of
are placed in water of the same character, and
rly as possible corresponding to the conditions
tice.

ically, however, the action of sea-water is so
at the test is comparatively useless. M. Alex-
ound * that the first indication of disintegration
ot be shown for several months or perhaps years.
o found that the action in the laboratory did not
accord with that in the work. This was probably
failures occurring because of the method of em-
the mortar, when the cement was not defective.

are sometimes made of mortar to be used in
er by causing the water to filter through the
of mortar under pressure. This test is made
nce by employing the standard cubes used in
ssion, which are arranged and submitted to
n as in the test for permeability (see Art. 67).
locks are afterward crushed, and their strengths
ed with those kept under normal conditions.

ART. 53. MEASUREMENT OF EXPANSION.

undness in cement is doubtless for the most
e to the presence of expansive elements, the
f which subsequent to the setting of the cement

Annales des Ponts et Chaussées, Sept. 1890, p. 131.

or when present in sufficient quantity, or by increase in volume without visible distortion in less quantity, or when more finely dividedly distributed through the mass.

The efficient and accurate method of determining the presence of expansives than is afforded by the use of thin pats of mortar, various appliances have been devised for the purpose of measuring directly the change of volume of a block of mortar.

Cement-bar Apparatus.—The first apparatus for measuring change of dimensions was devised by MM. Durand-Claye and Debray. It has been in use for a number of years in France, and was adopted for use in cold tests by the French Com-mission of Testing Materials (see Art. 52). The apparatus is shown in Fig. 25. The test is made of a bar 80 centimeters long and 12 millimeters square. The moulds in which these bars are formed are made on rods considerably longer than the bars to be tested, and of section 30 by 12 millimeters, laid flat and held apart at the ends by blocks of the same material as the cement bar, and prevented from spreading at the ends.

For the test, the bar of cement is placed in a tube 80 centimeters long and 23 millimeters square, closed at the bottom and filled with the material of which the mortar is to be exposed.

the cement bar is thus multiplied by 10

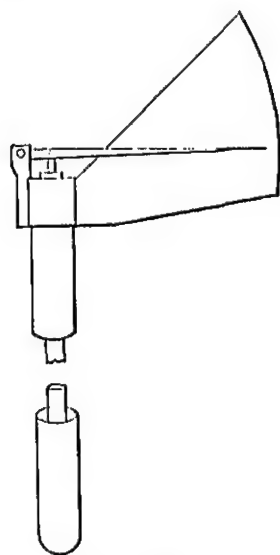


FIG. 25.

ing on the arc, which may be graduated, and
ve positions of the needle read from the scale,
e covered with blank paper, and have the posi-
needle-point marked and afterward measured.
d requires much care in manipulation, both
the bars and in handling them in the test.

ger's Caliper Apparatus. — This apparatus,
y Prof. Bauschinger and used in the German
laboratories, is an arrangement for measur-

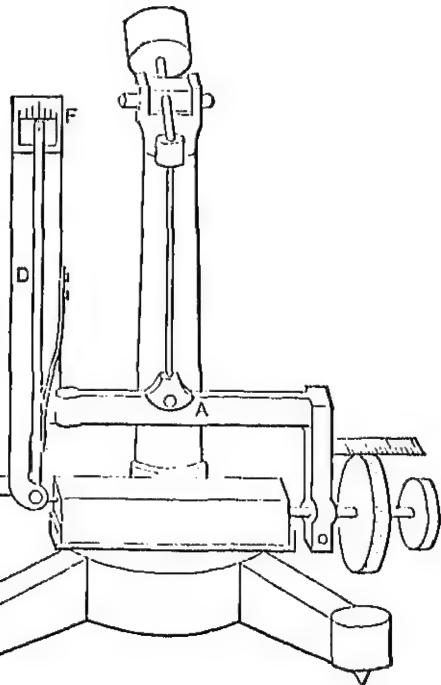


FIG. 26.

should be provided with square cavities in the ends in which are set small plates containing bearings for the points of the micrometer. The change in length may be measured by a micrometer.

The apparatus is suspended by a rod from

vertical bar at the bottom of which is hinged the needle. The lower end of the needle has a point which is pressed by a spring against the end of the specimen in making a measurement. The pressure of the micrometer against the specimen is regulated by bringing the point of the needle to zero on the scale *F*. A small bar of metal embedded in wood is used as a standard in calibrating the instrument, the length of the standard being known very accurately at a definite temperature.

Le Chatelier's Apparatus.—The apparatus of Prof. Le Chatelier is designed to measure the increase in circumference of a cylindrical block of mortar. This method is recommended by the French commission for use in making hot tests, and is said to have the advantage of being much more easily manipulated than the other methods. It has also been suggested that the increase in length for long bars may not be an accurate indication of the actual swelling, as there would be a tendency for the expansion to take lines of least resistance, and therefore the transverse swelling may be more than the longitudinal.

This apparatus is shown in Fig. 27. It is described by Prof. Le Chatelier as follows: * "A much more simple and yet sufficiently precise measurement of the expansion can be made by letting the cement harden in cylindrical moulds of a diameter equal to their height (for example

* Trans. Am. Inst. Mining Eng.

ent, not of the diameter, but of the circumference of the cylinder of cement. Very slow-setting cements, the water of which would evaporate or, if in air, it is indispensable to immerse as soon



FIG. 27.

without waiting for them to set. The immersion of a porous mass filled with air may sometimes, on account of capillary phenomena, give rise to a swelling, and even to more or less disintegration. The setting may be insufficient. During the moulding, if the setting has taken place the mould should be held by means of a suitable holder, which is used during setting and before the measurements are

made. For objects of good quality, the distance between the needles does not attain 1 mm. in 28 days after the end of setting. This test for invariability, when made cold, has but little interest, and is only exceptionally bad products."

at many cases of unsoundness in cement
by the ordinary tests when extended over
of time has long been recognized, and
have been made to find some means of
with accuracy and within a reasonable
the material be reliable. The difficulty
material of so variable a nature, and in
may be due to so many and so diverse
evident. Each test must be directed to
tion of the presence of some particular
undness, and all of them seem, when in-
applied to all cements, to meet material
pass them, although of good quality, and
are evidently inapplicable.

of these tests are directed to the detec-
called expansives, and most of them attempt
the chemical action, which causes the swelling
tion, by the action of heat. Some of
have proven fairly successful in use, although
extensively employed as tests for the recep-
t.

were first suggested by Dr. Michaelis, who
use of heat to advance the hardening of
a view to determining, from the strength
short time in hot water, that which would
longer period under normal conditions. From
experiments in this direction it appeared that the
obtained in from 1 to 7 days in hot water might
be in relation to those obtained in much longer

even showing a loss of strength in hot as in cold water.

Of tests made by M. Deval it was found that a small percentage of quicklime in Portland cement caused the cement to attain a greater strength when kept in hot than in cold water, and Leclercq proposed to utilize this discovery for the detection of the presence of free lime. He suggested the use of briquettes of 1 to 3 mortar, and the comparison of the strength of those conserved for 3 and 7 days at 100° C. with those kept for 7 and 28 days in ordinary temperatures; the cements of good quality should show a strength at least equal in hot to that in cold water.

It is observed in considering this test that there are some cements which give less strength in hot water than of normal quality. M. Alexandre found that cements rich in aluminates behave in this manner. There are also certain cements which give high tests in hot water notwithstanding the presence of appreciable quantities of free lime and expansive. These are apparently silicious cements of low hydraulic index, in which the free lime does not cause the cement to become unsound during the short period of the test in hot water.

Several methods of testing the soundness of cements with the aid of heat, which have come more and more into use, and have in many instances given satis-

ansion as in the corresponding cold tests. Descriptions of these tests are given in the following articles.

ART. 55. KILN TEST.

This test was originated by Dr. Bohmé, and consists in exposing small cakes of the cement to heat in a drying oven for a definite period, and observing whether it cracks.

The specifications of the Association of German Cement Makers recommend this test as a means of forming an opinion quickly, but make the ordinary 28-day test decisive as to those cements which fail to pass the kiln test. In these specifications the kiln test is described as follows:

For making the heat test, a stiff paste of neat cement and water is made, and from this cakes 8 cm. to 10 cm. in diameter and 1 cm. thick are formed on a smooth non-absorbent plate covered with blotting-paper. Two or three cakes, which are to be protected against drying, are placed over to prevent drying cracks, are placed after the expiration of twenty-four hours, or at least only after they have set, with their smooth surfaces on a metal plate and are dried for at least one hour to a temperature of from 100° to 120° C., until no more water escapes. For this purpose the drying closets in use in chemical laboratories may be utilized. If after this treatment the cakes show no edge cracks, the cement is to be considered in conformity with the test of constant volume. If such cracks do appear, the cement is not to be condemned; but the results of the

more than 3 per cent of calcium sulphate
other sulphur combinations."

is considered by some authorities to be of
ments to be used in the air. It differs very
wever, from the way the material is used in
it effects the complete drying out of the
many instances also it is very difficult to
consequence of the loss of cohesive strength
g, where no distortions appear. The effect
rawal of the water necessary to the proper
the mortar may vary as the rapidity of action
ial varies.

test has sometimes been modified by using
osphere in place of dry air. A pan of water
he oven under the specimens; the evaporation
keep the air saturated with moisture. Prof.
ed this method in a series of comparative
und it to give results similar to those of his
but somewhat less effective. His method
ws: "The specimens are placed on a support
on the bottom of which are several milli-
uter. The heat is gradually applied so as to
l the water in three to six hours,—first that
the bottom of the oven, then that which has
ed by the mortar. Until the water is entirely
he temperature remains at about 95° C. The
ntinued a half-hour after the disengagement
e ceases, in such manner as to raise the tem-

to render the results comparable. It is not possible to make the duration of heat exactly the same for all the specimens, and after the evaporation of the water the heat at the bottom is much greater than at the top of the specimen."

Flame Test.—A dry-heat test has been proposed and sometimes made in Europe, by making a ball of the cement paste about two inches in diameter and placing it on a gauze in the flame of a gas-jet. The heat is gradually applied, so that at the end of an hour it reaches a temperature of about 90°C . The heat is then increased until the lower part of the ball becomes red-hot, after which it is cooled and examined for cracks. The results of this test are much like those of the dry-kiln test, and are usually difficult to interpret satisfactorily.

ART. 56. STEAM AND HOT-WATER TEST.

This test consists in subjecting cakes of cement, prepared in the ordinary manner, to the action of steam for three or four hours, then immersing in hot water for the remainder of twenty-four hours, and examining for cracks and distortions.

Mr. Faija, by whom this test was devised, uses it in his specifications for cement in England. He describes the method of conducting the test as follows:

Briefly, it is a vessel containing water, the water being maintained at an even temperature of about 110° to 120°Fahr .; there is a cover to the vessel, so that above

a rack in the upper part of the vessel, and upon the by warm vapor rising from the when the pat is set quite hard, it is taken off and put bodily into the water, which, as has been stated, is maintained at a temperature of 50° Fahr., and in the course of twenty-four hours taken out and examined, and if found then hard and firmly attached to the glass, the test is at once pronounced sound and perfectly satisfactory; if, however, the pat has come off the glass in lumps or friability on the edges, or is much cracked under side, it may at once be decided that the cement in its present condition is not fit for use."

Mr. Maclay prefers the temperature given above, but other experimenters have seemed to get better results at a lower one. Prof. Tetmajer obtained fairly good results with a temperature just below the boiling-point of water, 200° Fahr. He subjected the cakes to the test in steam for four hours, and hot water twenty-four hours, and then removed the cakes from the steam as soon as mixed. Mr. Maclay has modified this method of testing, and has introduced it into the specifications of the Department of Public Works, New York City. Four pats or cakes of cement in the usual manner were used by Mr. Maclay in the conduct of which he describes as follows:*

Transactions, American Society of Civil Engineers, vol. xxvii,

the steam-bath after double the interval has
it took the pats to set hard, counting from the
ging. The fourth pat is placed in the steam-
end of twenty-four hours.

st four pats are each kept in the steam-bath
, then immersed in water of a temperature
00° Fahr. for twenty-one hours each, when
aken out and examined. To pass this test
ll four pats, after being twenty-one hours in
should upon examination show no swelling,
r distortions and should adhere to the glass
e latter requirement, while it obtains with
nts nearly free from uncombined lime, is not
on, the cracking, swelling, and distortion of the
much the more important features of this test.
-water tests, where the cement is very objec-
om excess of free lime, improper burning, or
es, the trouble generally shows itself in the
r distortion of all four pats. Where the cement
ad the cracking and swelling takes place in the
pats only, and when the cement is still less
ble only the first two pats crack or swell.
ing or swelling of No. 1 pat alone can generally
rded.

ery case of failure and rejection the cement
re been allowed to set hard in a normal tempera-
e subjecting it to a steam-bath."

ld be noted that the effect of exposing the

setting is greatly increased by the heat of the test may be augmented by placing at once; but where the rate of setting is the heat may cause the action of the expansion before the set, thus lessening the severity. In most cases the result of the test is the way, but it seems fairer to permit the cement submitting it to the test.

He, however, in his specifications does not results of the steam and hot-water test as cause of failure, but only considers it as cause of the cement failing to pass it, and adds it for the purpose of apparently giving the one more chance. This test consists in strength of briquettes conserved in hot water along them with those kept cold.

Briquettes are prepared and treated as follows:—making the briquettes for the ordinary cold—four additional sets of five each of neat four additional sets of mortar, one part two parts sand, are prepared, and allowed to set one hour in moist air of about 60° Fahr. They are then immersed in a steam-bath about 200° Fahr. for three hours, and then immersed in water maintained at 200° Fahr. which they are broken when two, three, four, five days old respectively, and the breakings compared with the normal breakings of briquettes seven and ten days old kept in cold water.”

old, and the hot-water seven-day breakings of cement are nearly as high as the normal seven-day breakings cold, where the cement is of good quality. Where the cement is poor, and the breakings are low, there is generally a falling off in the strength of the hot-water breakings in the above comparison, and one system can be used as a check on the other."

Practically the same test mentioned in Art. 10 is proposed by M. Le Chatelier. Its use in this connection is commended by M. Candlot:

"Cements which contain free lime show less resistance in hot water than in cold. The cements of good quality show resistances equal to or greater than in cold. Cements properly proportioned and burned, but not completely burned, give, in this test, low results."

It is pointed out, however, that the relative strengths of cements do not depend altogether upon the presence of free lime, and it is questionable if this method is as reliable as that it is designed to check. Some unsound cements certainly give high results in the measurements of briquettes conserved hot, while there is no authentic instance of any unsound cement passing the steam and hot-water test, although it may perhaps be condemned.

er of Zurich. It consists in placing the
tested in cold water, and then gradually
temperature of the water to boiling. Prof.
method is to place the pats in cold water im-
merging, raise the temperature to boiling
hour, continue boiling for three hours, and
the pats for checking and softening.
od seems rather more severe in its effects
tar than the other hot tests, although in-
ing but little from the steam and hot-water
boiling temperature is employed in that
ion, however, seems to be more energetic,
is required to arrive at the same results.
desirable in using the boiling test to permit
to set before subjecting it to the test, as giv-
reliable indication of value. The results of
in most cases practically the same whether
as previously set or not. When cement is
the boiling test before setting takes place it
to exercise much care in the manipulation
avoid any disturbance of the mortar through
of the water when heated. The results of
depend somewhat upon the rate of setting
al, and upon the influence of heat upon the
g. With quick-setting cements this action
nt, but with those very slow the heat may
on of the expansives to take place in advance
ng, or the cement may remain soft until late

This method is to roll a ball of the mortar, and then to roll it to the required thickness. The condition of the mortar is determined by the requirement that it shall not crack in flattening or run at the edges. In boiling water this seems desirable, but for tests used in the ordinary cold tests the thin edges are of no advantage in expediting the results where unsoundness is in the mortar.

The boiling test is frequently used in connection with the cold test for measuring expansion, in place of observations for distortions or cracks. The Bauschinger caliper is sometimes employed in this way, the bars being subjected to the boiling test, and the increase in length measured. The Le Chatelier apparatus (Fig. 27) is also frequently employed in this manner. The French Commission upon methods of testing materials recommends the use of the Le Chatelier apparatus for this purpose in addition to the cold test given in Art. 52, as

Tests.—For these tests cylindrical test-pieces are used, 3 centimeters in diameter and 3 centimeters high, made in metal moulds $1/2$ millimeter thick, of a circular generatrix, and carrying, one on each side of the cylinder, two needles, 15 centimeters long. The increase in length between the ends of the needles gives a measure of the swelling.

The moulds as soon as they are filled are immersed in boiling water. After an interval of not more than

... for six hours, and then it is allowed
making the final measurements."
... of testing is not applicable to quick-
...
... and test for deformation is to be made
... of standard consistency."
Standard specifications adopted in 1904
... for Portland cement, conducted in the
... as prescribed by the French specification
(See Appendix.)
... test is more simple than the steam and
... and requires very little in the way of
... may readily be made anywhere without

ART. 58. PRESSURE TEST.

... ger has devised a high-pressure steam test
In this test the pats are allowed to
... ee days, and are then exposed to steam
... t a pressure of from 3 to 20 atmospheres.
... has used this test for a number of years,
... it gives very satisfactory results, and that
... carried out it enables a complete and rapid
... formed on a cement containing magnesia.*
... accelerated tests, there has been much
... he reliability of this one, some authorities
... many of the best Portland cements fail

... ciety of Chemical Industry, vol. XII, p. 927.

test is executed both upon the neat cement and mortar, the severity of the test being greater upon the cements. Dr. Erdmenger claims that the best cements show no defect under this test at high pressures (at pressures of 100 atmospheres); that others may show defects at lower pressures, although safe in practice (especially in the case of the steam test), but they are not first quality; while cement which cannot stand the pressure test of about twelve atmospheres in the sand tests should be rejected as faulty.

ART. 59. AMERICAN STANDARD TESTS.

American Specifications commonly impose only the steam test for soundness, although in a number of cases the steam and hot-water test (Art. 56) is employed. In a few specifications the boiling test (Art. 57) is used. In a few specifications the boiling test (Art. 57) with thin edged pats, is used.

The Canadian Society of Civil Engineers, in 1903, recommended the following:

Blowing test.—Mortar pats of neat cement thoroughly worked are troweled upon carefully cleaned 5-inch square ground-glass plates. The pats shall be about 1/2 inch thick in the centre and worked off to sharp edges at the four sides. They shall be covered with a cloth and allowed to remain in the air until set, after which they shall be placed in vapor in a tank in which the water is heated to a temperature of 130° F. and remaining in the vapor six hours, including the time

samples shall break with a sharp, crisp ring.
Committee of the American Society of Civil Engineers recommended the following:

Test.—The object is to develop those qualities which destroy the strength and durability of a material. It is highly essential to determine such properties, tests of this character are for the most part made in a very short time, and are known, therefore, as rapid tests. Failure is revealed by cracking, crumbling, or disintegration, or all of these phenomena. A specimen which remains perfectly sound is said to pass the test.

Tests for constancy of volume are divided into two classes: (1) normal tests, or those made in either water or air maintained at about 21° C. (70° F.), and (2) high temperature tests, or those made in air, steam, or water at a temperature of 45° C. (115° F.) and upward. Specimens should be allowed to remain twenty-four hours in air before immersion in water or steam, and twenty hours in air.

Test.—The tests, pats, about 7½ cm. (2.95 inches) in diameter and 1 cm. (0.49 inch) thick at the centre, and tapered at the edges, should be made, upon a clean glass plate, of a size of 10 cm. (3.94 inches) square, from cement paste of normal consistency.

Test.—A pat is immersed in water maintained at 21° C. (70° F.) as possible for twenty-eight days,

temperature and observed at intervals.
Test.—The pat is exposed in any convenient atmosphere of steam, above boiling water, in a closed vessel, for three hours.

If these tests satisfactorily, the pats should be strong and hard, and show no signs of cracking, or disintegration.

If the pat leave the plate, distortion may be tested with a straight-edge applied to the surface when in contact with the plate.

In the present state of our knowledge it cannot be said that it should necessarily be condemned simply for not passing the accelerated tests, nor can a cement be considered entirely satisfactory simply because it passes these tests.

D. VALUE OF THE ACCELERATED TESTS.

The reliability of the various accelerated tests for determining the soundness of cement in use is a matter on which there is much dispute amongst authorities on the subject. These tests have not as yet come into general use, and considerable opposition has been offered to them, although in certain instances they have been used.

The question of adopting the accelerated tests was discussed by the Association of German Cement Manufacturers in 1891, and it was voted to adhere to the tests already existing. It was also stated in

not be used by the committee, with a view to sound opinion on the constancy of volume. Results of a number of experiments are also given in discussion, showing that a number of cements which had not withstood the *kiln* test were sound when immersed in water at normal temperatures, or if placed in water and being kept moist for several days. It may be said also that most of the discussion seemed to refer to the dry-heat test.

The leading German cement experts, however, are advocates of the use of heat tests. Dr. Michaelis expresses his approval of them, and stated that he had experimented with and used them satisfactorily for a number of years at the Charlottenburg experiment station. Dr. Erdmenger also declares that experience with the high-pressure-steam test to give an accurate indication of the permanence of volume of the material. He states that most of the best German cements have withstood test up to a pressure of forty atmospheres for several hours and several for neat cement, the best of them without defect whatever; and he thinks there is no reason to doubt the statement that many good cements will pass the test.

Dr. Bauschinger found that cements which had passed the results in the ordinary 28-day test, and also the cold-pat test for a year, failed when formed into cubes of 1 to 3 mortar for testing in the Bauschinger apparatus. Expansion was detected in six months

(continuance of the present practice for quick determinations and the 28-day test is decisive), but they state that "the boiling test should be considered as the most convenient test for the determination of constancy of Portland cement, of slag cement, and of other cements." They refer a particular test to the sub-committee for consideration and report.

Commission upon Methods of Testing† The use of the boiling test as the best method for a quick determination of the permanence of Portland cement, the amount of the increase in weight to be measured directly, instead of simply the effect upon a small pat.

The steam and hot-water test has been used by Mr. Faija, using a low temperature; in the United States the same test is employed by the Engineers of the New York Department of Public Works at a temperature near boiling. In some instances it has also been used in the United States by the Engineers in the study of their product with very

view to the possibility of adopting some form of accelerated

of the Conventions held at Munich, Dresden, and Vienna, for the purpose of adopting uniform methods of testing materials, by J. Bauschinger; translated by O. M. Gieseler (Washington, 1896).
des Méthodes d'Essai des Matériaux de Construction, Paris, 1894 and 1895).

g the matter, the results of which differ each other as to involve the question in . Most of these experiments have been ing the action of heat upon the various which unsoundness is usually attributed, on the results whether the hot test gives ication of the presence of these ingredients

The most common method has been to antity of quicklime with a good Portland en observe the action of the test upon the involves the assumption that certain cer lime are sufficient to render the cement results of tests made in this manner are o much variation, due to the nature of e rapidity of action, and the quantity of n may have been originally present in it. ements have been of much value in show- of the accelerated tests upon various sub- discovering the reasons for many of the ractory results with them. The question adoption of tests of this character must, etermined by a comparison of the results ir use upon the material as found in market n of the same material in practical use. periments are desirable which shall system- re the results of accelerated test upon ts with the results of tests under normal

ates at the laboratory of the College of Civil Engineering
Cornell University.

A careful study of the available results of experiment
seems to justify the following statements:

1. Small percentages of uncombined lime or magnesia
in the cement are commonly detected by the use of the
heat tests, and the same ingredients in sufficient quantity
render the cement unsound in ordinary use.

2. Cement liable to change of volume when employed
under normal conditions is almost invariably detected
when submitted to the hot-water test. There seems to
be no well-authenticated instance of failure to condemn
grossly defective material.

3. Nearly, if not quite, all of the best brands of Port-
land cement, and many of natural cement, as found in
market, readily meet the requirements of these tests,
which therefore do not impose so severe limitations
upon the choice of cement as is commonly supposed.
With natural cement the results of these tests vary some-
what with the character of the cement, and the same
tests do not seem to be universally applicable. This,
however, is a matter which can only be determined by
careful experiment upon each of the various classes of
natural cement. Many of them bear the severe tests
equally as well as the Portland.

* Methoden und Resultate der Prüfung hydraulischen Binde-
mittel (Zurich, 1893).

mal temperatures in fresh water. These
the most part seem to fail if kept in dry air
ted to the action of sea-water. Apparently,
unsoundness may exist which is sufficient
change of volume to take place in a short
water or in a longer time in dry air, while in
the action of the expansives takes place
ry to the mortar. This is shown by the fact
mortar which had failed in the boiling test
of mixing, after being kept several months
r, and then subjected to the boiling test,
o stand the test perfectly, showing that the
e expansives must meanwhile have taken
veral instances pats of cement acting in this
found to blow in dry air.

undness of cement condemned by the heat
he mortar is to be kept submerged in fresh
refore, in many instances at least, question-
e large series of tests made by Prof. Tet-
f 139 samples of Portland cement 17 failed
g test, all of which also failed in a long time
hile only 2 were defective in long time in
water. In the tests made by the author, the
f failures to total number of samples is less
h, 5 in 53, and 3 of the 5 samples which were
the hot test were later disintegrated when
fresh water.

eness of the cement has an important bear-

material be sifted out, and only the coarse part employed in the test, the slower action in the larger may cause distortion and cracking to take whether the same difference usually follows in has not been satisfactorily determined.

and cement which contains free lime in sufficiency to cause it to swell in the hot test may be made to pass that test by adding a small of sulphate of lime. The action of this salt setting of cement has already been discussed The rules of the Association of German makers permit the addition of a small proportion of lime for the purpose of regulating the setting, and conclude that no injury is thereby to the cement.

of the sulphate of lime to correct the expansion of free lime is but imperfectly known. The causes cement containing free lime to pass is well known, but whether the corrective tends to the action of the expansives when the used under normal conditions has not as satisfactorily determined.

strongest objection that has been urged against hot tests is that they fail to detect free lime presence of the calcium sulphate. The justice of this objection can only be decided by experiments over considerable periods of time to determine whether the material so passed is sound under

experimental stage, and further experiment is to determine more fully the connection between results of tests and the action of the cement

present conditions it may be said that the opinion is fairly against the soundness of a cement which fails to pass the hot-water test and in favor of that which succeeds in passing it; but variations in the results in the conditions under which it is employed are so great that the results, and they cannot be relied upon as a guide for all material. Upon ordinary work in fresh water there is probably no consideration of unsoundness in the use of any good brand of cement, although failure sometimes occurs; but for important works, and particularly those to be exposed to the action of sea-water, it is reasonable to require tests as are likely to insure good material, and to run the risk of excluding other good material.

ART. 61. AIR-SLAKING.

When fresh cement, when first opened after being in storage, is found to set very slowly, or to set at all, if tested at once, show an abnormally rapid setting, and subsequently harden very slowly, and in short-time tests very low tensile strength may be obtained. If, however, this cement be exposed to the air for a few days, it may resume its natural rate of setting,

ety of air-slaking in testing cement is
y some engineers, upon the ground that
be used in the work will not be treated in
anner. In England it is customary to give
e to all cement to be used upon important
east ten days, but in the United States the
commonly used just as received from the

al practice seems to favor air-slaking in
probably a cement capable of regaining
condition in a few days' exposure will not
work, even if used at once, but it would
better in using such cement to air-slake
fore using. It may be remarked, however,
ing does not ordinarily seem necessary.
commonly placed upon the market by the
does not need it. While it may be allowable
material the benefit of the operation, probably
of rejection would occur on account of its

nstances the effect of air-slaking a cement
disappears with time; that is, the strength
r after three or six months may be as great
d before as for that mixed after air-slaking,
difference of strength on a test extending
ays is very considerable. This would indi-
ssity of air-slaking the whole of the material
gth is to be developed in the work, although

at a degree of unconsciousness likely to be
though this also disappears in the second

on is simply as to the quantity of the ex-
th may be present without danger to the
n it is used.

CHAPTER VIII.

SPECIAL TESTS.

ART. 62. TESTS OF ADHESIVE STRENGTH.

THE ability of cement mortar to firmly adhere to a surface with which it may be placed in contact is one of its most valuable properties and quite as important as the development of cohesive strength. Tests for adhesive strength are not commonly employed as a measure of the quality of the material, because of the uncertain character of the test and the difficulty of so conducting it as to make it a reliable indication of value. The adhesive properties of the cement are to a certain extent called into play in the tensile tests of sand mortar, and may be inferred from a comparison of neat and sand tests. Adhesive strength is developed more slowly than that of cohesion. The difference between the two, which is usually considerable during the early period of hardening, gradually lessened with time. This is illustrated in the greater time required for sand mortar than for neat cement to harden.

Experiments upon the adhesion of mortars to various substances are sometimes made, both for the purpose of comparing various cements or methods of use, and to study the relative effects of various kinds of surfaces.

tar of the ordinary form for tensile specimens. The other half a block of stone, glass, or other material may be used, of the same section as the mould, and arranged to be held by a special clip of the testing-machine at the other.

In Germany and Switzerland the apparatus shown in Figure 28 is employed. The testpiece is shown at *a*;

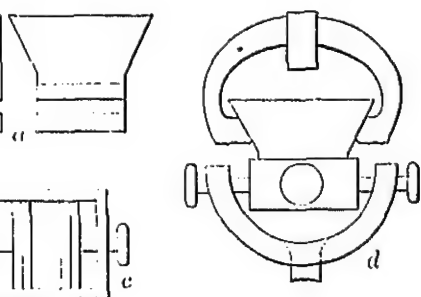


FIG. 28.

section of 10 square centimeters—twice that of a standard tensile specimen. The mortar end is formed in a wedge shape to catch the upper clip of the testing-machine, while the other end is formed of a block of marble or ground glass for standard use. A cylindrical groove cut in its side, which is held by a special clamp (shown at *c*). This clamp is used, in the lower clip of the testing-machine, shown at *d*. For forming the briquettes moulds

standard tests in comparing different materials; amount of labor involved in the preparation of blocks, and the difficulty of getting always the same, has been a bar to the extension of this method. Ground glass has been more commonly employed than the same blocks being repeatedly used. Dr. C. also used for this purpose standard blocks of mortar, of the same form, which are easily obtained and more uniform in material and surface.

The International Conference on Methods of Testing, held in 1908, did not define a standard test, but referred the matter to a sub-committee, with the recommendation that the German apparatus just described

should be used. The commission recommend the use of a double T form, suggested by M. Candlot. See Fig. 29. A mould is employed, made to hold half the briquette, which is set down over the specimen to be used in forming the specimen.

The recommendations of the commission are as follows: To compare the adhesive strengths of cements, subjected to the tension test a briquette of the form shown above, each of the materials constituting half of one of the specimens. Standard tests, intended to compare the adhesive strengths of various cements to the same material.

Standard adhesion-blocks are prepared composed of one part, by weight, of artificial cement, passed through the sieve of 900 meshes

k. The adhesion-blocks are immersed in
after twenty-four hours, and kept thus until

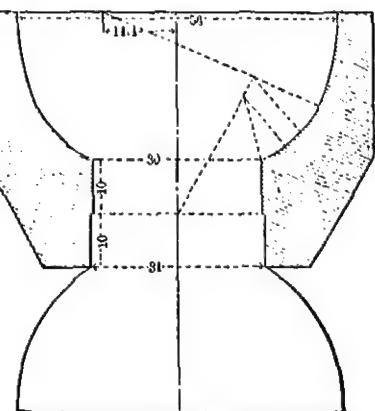


FIG. 29.

cast for twenty-eight days. When they are
dried, they are dried and the surface is smoothed
paper.

standard plastic mortar (see Art. 44) is
for these tests, introduced by the pressure
el into the moulds, placed in such manner
ndard adhesion-block forms the base. The
removed from the mould when completely

briquettes are tested in the same manner
same periods prescribed for tensile tests."

l can be moulded, the block may be made
ay as the standard block. If the material
several millimeters thick may be formed
ce dressed. This is placed in the bottom
and the block filled out with neat cement."

ART. 63. CHEMICAL ANALYSIS.

analysis is of very great value in the study
ties of various cements, and is commonly
manufacturers in regulating the quality of
s. It is not commonly used for the purpose
ng the quality of a cement, and is not of
as a test for the reception of material.

ty of the cement depends not only upon
nts being properly proportioned, but also
e of combination of the ingredients, and this
nds upon the manipulation given the mate-
ufacture. Analysis shows the proportions of
ingredients, but does not show their state of
. The results of an analysis may show
osition is such that a good cement may be
the ingredients, but other tests are necessary
ether it has been made. Chemical analysis
er, prove a cement to be bad through its
bjectionable proportions of ingredients known

cannot be detected by analysis, as their presence is necessarily dependent upon the proportion of lime or magnesia present.

Specifications, devised by M. Guillaumin, generally reject those containing more than 1% of free acid, or sulphides in appreciable quantity. Those containing more than 4% of oxide of iron give less than 44/100 for the ratio of the weights of silica and alumina to the weight of lime, and are to be regarded with suspicion.

The presence of volatile elements in a cement is due to insufficient burning or deterioration with exposure to the air.

It is stated that a chemical analysis may be used to detect the adulteration of cement, sometimes with sugar. Upon sifting the cement and analyzing the coarse and fine portions an adulteration should show practically identical results in two analyses. He also states that blast-furnace gas is a common adulteration in Portland cement, which may sometimes be discovered by the odor of hydrogen upon treating it with hydrochloric acid.

The Standard Specifications for Portland Cement, 1904, recommend the following as a recommended chemical composition: "There shall be no free lime, that is to say, the proportion of lime shall not be greater than is necessary to saturate silica

Cement of the American Society for Testing
in 1904 recommend the following require-
Portland cement: "The cement shall not con-
than 1.75 per cent of anhydrous sulphuric
, nor more than 4 per cent of magnesia

of Analysis.—The following method for the
f cement was recommended by committee on
y in the Analysis of Materials for the Portland
Industry, of New York Section of the Society
cal Industry.*

*l suggested by Clifford Richardson, for the
of Limestone, Raw Mixture, and Portland
proposed for trial by the committee and modi-
cordance with the suggestions of W. F. Hille-*

on.—One half gramme of the finely powdered
is to be weighed out, and, if a limestone or
mixture, strongly ignited in a platinum crucible
blast for fifteen minutes. It is then trans-
an evaporating-dish, preferably of platinum,
ke of celerity in evaporation, covered with a
ss and 10 cc. of HCl, diluted with about 50 cc.
added. Digestion on the water-bath is allowed
or about 15 minutes, when the substance should

nal, Society for Chemical Industry, Jan. 15, 1902.

st with 5-10 cc. of strong HCl, and then with water as the dish will comfortably hold. The filter is replaced and digestion allowed to go on for 24 hours on the bath, after which the solution is filtered and the separated silica washed thoroughly with water. The filtrate is again evaporated to dryness, the residue, without further heating, taken up with water and the small amount of silica separated on another filter-paper. The papers and the residue are transferred wet to a weighed crucible, dried, ignited, first over a Bunsen burner, then in a blast, until the carbon of the filter is completely consumed, and finally in the blast for 30 minutes and checked by weighing for 10 minutes or to constant weight. If great accuracy is desired, the residue is treated in the crucible with about 10 cc. of HF and four drops of water, evaporated over a low flame to complete dryness, the small residue is washed, finally blasted, and weighed. The difference between this weight and the weight previously obtained gives the weight of silica.†

Iron and Fe₂O₃.—The filtrate about 250 cc., from the evaporation for SiO₂, is made alkaline with

ammonia. If the iron remains undecomposed it should be separated, the filtrate acidified with a little Na₂CO₃, dissolved, and added to the original

filtrate. In the ordinary control work in the plant laboratory this correction is perhaps neglected; the double evaporation never.

the filtrate, the precipitate is dissolved in hot dilute solution passing into the beaker in which the titration was made. The aluminium and iron are reprecipitated by NH_4OH . The second precipitate is collected and washed on the same filter used in the first. The filter-paper, with the precipitate, is then placed in a weighed platinum crucible, the paper burned and the precipitate ignited and finally blasted to redness, with care to prevent reduction, cooled and weighed as Al_2O_3 and Fe_2O_3 .*

Fe_2O_3 .—The combined iron and aluminium oxides are placed in a platinum crucible at a very low temperature and about 10 grammes of KHSO_4 , the melt taken up with water and 25 cc. of dilute H_2SO_4 . The clear solution is then digested on the steam bath for about 15 minutes, and, if accuracy is desired, the small amount of iron is filtered out, weighed, and corrected by H_2F and H_2SO_4 . The filtrate is reduced by hydrogen sulphide, boiling out the excess afterwards whilst passing through the flask, and titrated with permanganate.†
 TiO_2 .—To the combined filtrate from the Al_2O_3 and Fe_2O_3 precipitate a few drops of $\text{H}_2\text{N}_2\text{O}_2$ are added and the solution brought to boiling. To the boiling solution a saturated solution of ammonium oxalate are

This precipitate contains TiO_2 , P_2O_5 , MnO .

In this way only is the influence of titanium to be avoided, a correct result obtained for iron.

placed wet in a platinum crucible, and the paper
over a small flame of a Bunsen burner. It is
red, redissolved in HCl , and the solution made
out 100 cc. with water. Ammonia is added in
excess and the liquid is boiled. The small amount
which is separated is filtered out, weighed, and
not added to that found in the first determination,
at accuracy is desired. The lime is then repre-
sented by ammonium oxalate, allowed to stand until
washed, weighed * as oxide by ignition and blast-
furnace weight, or determined with standard per-
centage.†

—The combined filtrates from the calcium pre-
paration are acidified with HCl , and concentrated on the
water bath to about 150 cc., 30 cc. of $\text{Na}(\text{NH}_4)\text{HPO}_4$
solution is added, and the solution transferred to a beaker and
boiled for several minutes. It is then removed from
the heat and cooled by placing the beaker in ice-water.
Then, NH_4OH is added drop by drop, with con-
stirring until the crystalline ammonium-magnesium
phosphate begins to form, and then in slight excess,
the stirring being continued for several minutes. It is then
allowed to stand for several hours in a cool atmosphere and
filtered. The precipitate is redissolved in hot dilute

Volume of wash-water should not be too large.

Accuracy of this method admits of criticism, but its con-
venience and rapidity demand its insertion.

ved to stand for about two hours, when it is filtered
paper or a Gooch crucible, cooled and weighed as
 P_2O_5 .

K_2O and Na_2O .—For the determination of the alkalis
the well-known method of Prof. J. Lawrence Smith
be followed, either with or without the addition of
 O_3 with the NH_4Cl .

SO_3 .—One gramme of the cement is dissolved in
cc. of HCl , filtered and the residue washed thoroughly.*
The solution is made up to 250 cc. in a beaker and
d. To the boiling solution 10 cc. of a saturated
tion of $BaCl_2$ are added slowly drop by drop from a
tte and the boiling continued until the precipitate is
formed. It is then set aside over night, filtered,
ed and weighed as $BaSO_4$.

Total Sulphur.—One gramme of material is weighed
in a large platinum crucible and fused with Na_2CO_3
a little KNO_3 , being careful to avoid contamination
n sulphur in the gases from the source of heat. The
t is treated in the crucible with boiling water and the
id poured into a tall, narrow beaker and more hot
er added until the mass is all dissolved. The solu-
is then filtered. The filtrate contained in a No. 4
ker is to be acidulated with HCl and made up to
ut 250 cc. with distilled water, boiled, the sulphur
cipitated as $BaSO_4$ and allowed to stand over night.

* Evaporation to dryness is unnecessary.

64. TESTS FOR HOMOGENEITY.

various tests have been proposed for detecting the adulteration of Portland cement. These tests are not usually of a nature intrinsic in specifications for the reception of cement, but may sometimes be of use in studying the character of various brands of cement or in classifying cement of doubtful character. The materials most common with adulterations include powdered shale, blast-furnace slag, hydraulic lime, etc. The nature of the tests depends upon the adulteration to be discovered.

The specific-gravity test is sometimes utilized for detecting the foreign matter being lighter than cement. The differences, however, are so small that the test is rather an uncertain one.

The determination of the loss upon ignition may indicate the presence of foreign matter containing volatile matter, while chemical analysis, separating the various parts of the cement and comparing the results, is sometimes resorted to, as stated in Art. 63.

Test.—The use of the microscope for determining the character of the substance in cement has often been proposed. Mr. Atterberg made a careful study of Portland cement, examining sections of underground clinker

city. Attempts have also been made to determine the character of the cement by studying the appearance of the powder is composed under the microscope. In the case of Portland cement, it has been observed that the portion of the cement is composed of grains of uniform form and metallic lustre, and that the parts of the grains which are probably inert. It has also been observed that the color of the grains seems to bear a relation to their value in the cement. Further research will give more positive indications of value based on microscopic appearance, but it seems unlikely that the present method will be applied to the determination of the value of cement in practice.

To determine the degree of homogeneity, the employment of an ordinary microscope-glass may perhaps give useful results. Mr. J. B. Smith has made a study of the matter and presented his results to the French Commission upon Methods of Testing Portland Cement, recommends that the material to be examined should be sifted through the sieve of 4900 meshes per centimeter and the portion retained by that sieve should be used in the examination, on account of the fact that the grains observed when mixed with the cement powder. It is also suggested that two portions of the material be examined: the first of a powder of about three times the quantity of the material; the second of about eight times the quantity of the material; in detail the various grains. The material to be examined on a black surface to be examined. The

articles is not necessarily the same as in the
ions, or at least the proportions of the various
its may not be the same.

ret found that pure cement, thoroughly well
gave "grains all of the same appearance, black,
angular, hard, and with a rough fracture.
with a drop of water they show at first no change
several minutes a sort of halo appears, pro-
the beginning of crystallization of the soluble
ids. These grains color immediately in hydro-
acid to a yellow, but are completely dissolved
culty.

less burned gives grains equally opaque, but
less deep, varying to brown, gray, or green.
derburned rock gives gray or yellow grains,
ush easily under the point of a knife, and are
by acids with the disengagement of carbonic

n instead of material prepared in the labora-
thoroughly homogeneous, the residue obtained
arket grades of cement is used, the appearance
ifferent even if the material be of best quality.
or is less deep and the material appears very
ncous. Such cements contain always, with many
black, brown, or green grains, a large number
vitreous material, green, yellow, and white, with-
aining foreign matter."

bright colors, blue, green, violet, red, and
e materials are usually soft and porous."

in black and brilliant grains, with con-
ecture, is found in all the specimens, and
n."

bris of flint from the millstones is not easily
ed from certain underburned cement grains;
he gray morsels, hard and opaque. They
the cement grains in not being attacked by
ids."

appearance of grains of slag vary according
ure of the slag. Commonly, the grains are
of a bluish-gray color, and smooth, clean
Sometimes the grains are vitreous and black.
lar slags employed in making slag cements
nd leave few grains. Their débris has the
of colorless glass, or tint of yellow or green,
res easily under the point of a knife."

ers give round grains, usually more clear in
the grains of cement."

n added to cement clinker before grinding may
e white crystalline grains easily seen. They
identified by their hardness and solubility. Plas-
cult to recognize, because it grinds fine and
rystals."

laster has been added to cement, it may some-
detected by separate analyses of the fine and

the mixture of methylene iodide and benzine, slightly below that of cement and above that separating by its means the cement from tion. It is thus described by Prof. Le

operation is the preparation of a liquid of ty for the separation,—2.95 for example. l the cement sinks to the bottom and the the surface. To prepare the liquid add to e iodide of density 3.1 a small quantity of pping the moment a crystal of aragonite of just remains at the surface. It is well not mixture directly, but to make two mixtures— le lighter, the other a little heavier, than sought; thus obtaining a more progressive d more easily regulated."

aratus consists of a glass tube (Fig. 30) s in diameter, 70 millimeters high, widened at top and terminated at bottom in a point, ce, 1 millimeter in diameter. This orifice the interior a little above the bottom, by a stopper, fastened to a long glass rod, which he top of the tube.

e an experiment, the stopper is wet with e is dissolved by the liquid), to prevent o grammes of cement are introduced, then centimeters of liquid (density 2.95). It is d in a lively manner with a small platinum

at the bottom and the slag at the top. The

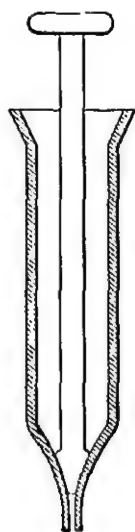


FIG. 30.

emery is lightly raised by the rod to which
d, letting out the cement and part of the liquid,
n replaced. The cement is caught upon a
gh which the liquid passes into a flask, when
for another operation.

ag and remainder of the liquid are received
ner filter. Finally the tube and filters are
h benzine and dried; the cement and slag
l, and analyzed chemically if thought proper."

ART. 65. ABRASIVE TESTS.

be used for sidewalks, floors, or artificial
times submitted to tests for resistance to
is test is frequently employed in Ger-
apparatus designed by Prof. Bauschinger
This apparatus consists of a cast-iron
timeters in diameter and 3 centimeters
l to rotate horizontally at about 20 revolu-
ute. Specimens 6×6 , 10×10 , or 12×12
a section are employed. They are held
k with a pressure of 30 kilogrammes, and
f standard sand are added for each 10 turns.
given, and the loss in weight of the specimen

ws a similar apparatus made by the Riehle
-machine Co., and used for brick and stone
on tests, when employed, are usually made
t cement and sand mortar. The test of
ed in practice is evidently the more impor-
nce to abrasion varies with the character of
d for sand mortar depends upon the adhe-
ment to the sand and the hardness of the
nd. Sand mortars with moderate propor-
give better resistance to abrasion than neat

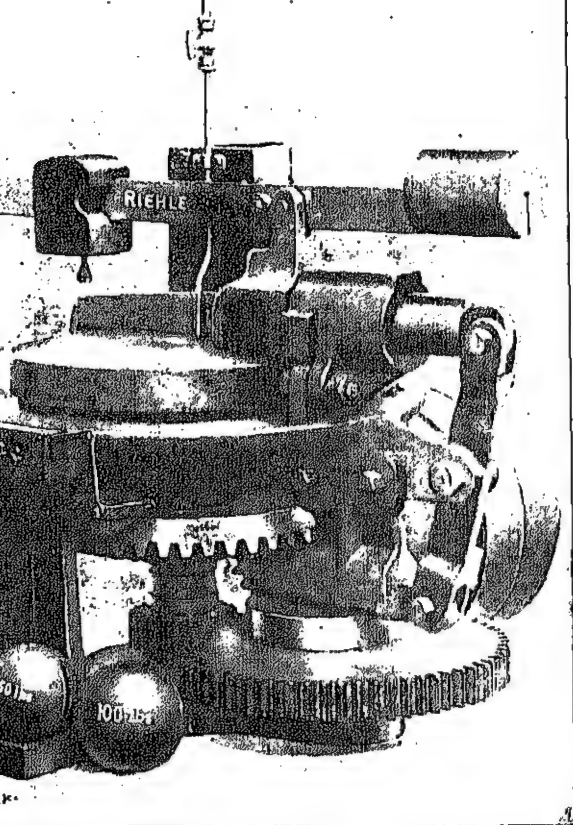


FIG. 31.

properties of the materials and methods employed. The porosity may often be a matter as affecting the durability of mortar as the action of disintegrating agencies. These are employed for the reception of material. It depends to a much greater extent upon the water used in gauging, and the degree of care used in forming the briquette, than upon the quality of the cement or sand employed, although the fineness of these materials has some in-

fluence. Porosity consists in determining the ratio of voids to the total volume of the mortar. It is of determining when the voids are completely filled with liquid, or when the mortar is quite solid. The process is a somewhat uncertain one, and a definite procedure be followed in order to obtain concordant and comparable results.

The method usually followed is to measure the total apparent volume and the volume of material: the volume of material is the difference of the two; this divided by the total apparent volume is the percentage of porosity. To determine the total apparent volume, the simplest method is to use a block of such form that it may be directly weighed. When this method is not employed the total volume is obtained by weighing the block in a saturated solution in water and in the air; the difference of the two weights is the weight of water displaced,

change during the weighing.

tain the volume of solid material in the block, difference between the weight of the block when in air, and of the saturated block in water is obtained.

This difference is the weight of water displaced by the solid material. To secure good results the entire block must be in the first instance and the complete saturation in the second is essential. The block may be placed in dry air for a period sufficient to permit the weight to become constant. For this purpose it is necessary that the temperature be the same in all cases, as the amount of hygrometric water given off depends upon the temperature of drying; 100° to 110° Fahr. has been commonly employed, and is recommended by the French Commission on Standard Tests. After the dry weight has been obtained, considerable difficulty may be experienced in attaining complete saturation. If the block be simply immersed in water, air will be retained in the voids, and a long time is required to obtain a constant weight. Boiling is sometimes resorted to, but has the disadvantage of causing change of volume in the mortar. The best method of expediting the test is to exhaust the air from the specimen in water under the receiver of an air pump.

Tetmajer recommends* that a temperature of

Methoden und Resultate der Prüfung der Hydraulischen Binde-
Zurich, 1893).

ed by measuring directly the volume of ed. For this purpose an apparatus is ch is very similar to the Schuman volu- g. 5, but with a removable cover to the he specimen.

67. TESTS FOR PERMEABILITY.

ability of mortar is quite distinct from and the more porous is not necessarily the le. Tests for permeability, like those for interesting and important in the studies of of mortar, but are not suitable for use ns for the reception of material. The or permeability is made by forcing water ke of mortar under pressure. This may ed either by subjecting the mortar directly e of a considerable head of water, or by block of mortar to a small pressure from water above, while the air is exhausted, rtial vacuum below. The latter method ally preferred in Europe, although the n made standard in France.

us shown in *Fig. 32* has been frequently hese tests. It consists of a heavy cylin- (a) with a ground upper edge, upon which tted the second cylinder (d). The speci- ng a section of 20 square centimeters and

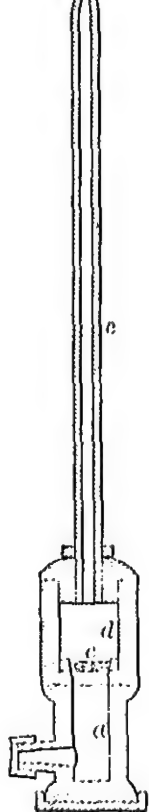


FIG. 32.

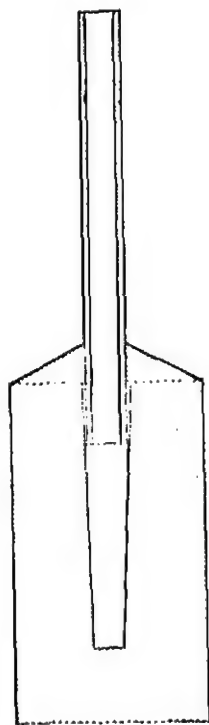


FIG. 33.

A ground-glass stopper covers the cylinder (*b*) carries the graduated tub (*c*), which has a capacity 5 cubic centimeters and is graduated to $1/2$ centi-

cylinder and the cover clamped down, the
ed from *a*, the stop-cock closed, and the
e filled with water to the zero mark. The
ater percolating through the specimen may
from the scale for any desired unit of time.
ement shown in Fig. 33 is also used to
in Europe. It consists of a hollow cylin-

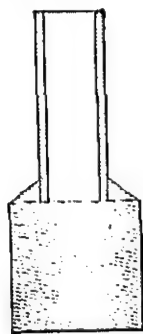


FIG. 34.

110 millimeters in diameter and 200 milli-
of the mortar to be tested, into the top
glass tube is set with neat cement. In making
ubber tube is connected with the glass tube
vessel placed at such an elevation as will
sure desired, which varies according to the
tested.

block, arranged as shown in Fig. 34, is
ly employed. For this purpose the stand-

ssed by the number of liters of water which trans-
a cube with faces of 50 square centimeters during
en time.

The water is supplied by a glass tube 35 millimeters
iameter and 110 millimeters high, sealed vertically
e aid of neat cement upon the upper face of the
. The upper end of the tube is connected by a
er tube with a reservoir raised to an elevation cor-
nding to the head desired. The heads adopted,
ding to the permeability of the mortar, are 0.10
, 1 meter, and 10 meters.

efore the test is made, the blocks should be im-
ed for 48 hours, with such precautions as are neces-
to secure as complete saturation as possible. After
ning the experiment the block is kept completely
ersed.

The rate of filtration is determined after 24 hours,
ys, 28 days, 3 months.

The determinations are made for three blocks, the
a results being taken for the two blocks most con-
ant.

The *standard test* for permeability is to be made upon
lard plastic mortar 28 days old, kept under water.

For tests upon mortars of different ages and com-
ions, it is recommended to employ 1 to 2 and 1
mortars made plastic, and 7 days, 28 days, and 3
ths old."

ne permeability of mortars to gases is a matter

frequently made upon cement mortars to the effect of freezing before setting or while still comparatively fresh, for the purpose of ascertaining the safety of using the mortar in freezing weather, or the best method of so using it.

These tests are usually made by exposing briquettes to various temperatures, either by taking advantage of the natural temperatures, or by using a freezing mixture. They consist of comparing the results of tensile tests upon briquettes exposed to frost with those kept under normal conditions.

This kind of test may be of much value in showing the relative properties of various materials, and often yields interesting results. They are to be used with care, however, in determining from them the probable effect of frost upon work in which the mortar may be employed. Only the results of briquette tests, and the results of tests upon material in large masses in construction are to be compared. Injury to work may perhaps result not only from the injurious effect of frost upon the strength of the mortar, but also from expansive action upon the aggregate, or the mortar, after setting, while still too weak to offer resistance to distortion.

Some laboratories it is the custom to make tests of the yield of mortar obtained from given weights of materials employed. This may sometimes be of importance as affecting the economy of use of various materials, while a study of the differences obtained with different material is interesting.

In conducting such tests it is evidently necessary to adopt a standard method of gauging the ingredients, the yield of the resulting product being much affected by variations in manipulations. The method employed is to measure directly the volume of paste obtained by mixing to standard consistency a unit weight of neat cement or of cement and sand in proper proportions. For this purpose the paste is put in a graduated glass measure, care being taken to eliminate all of the air-voids.

Sometimes the test is made by making blocks of the material which are allowed to set, their volumes being subsequently obtained by greasing their surfaces and weighing them in air and water.

ART. 70. TESTS OF SAND.

Tests of the sand to be used in mortar are of much importance in determining the relative value of different sands and as in studying the effect of variations in the nature, color, or size of grains of which it may be composed. Complete tests should include an examination of the color of the sand, its fineness as shown by the amount

tested as compared with similar tests made
sand are of most importance as indicating
e sand to combine with cement in forming

CHAPTER IX.

MENT MORTAR AND CONCRETE.

ART. 71. SAND FOR MORTAR.

aulic cement is commonly mixed with cer-
tions of sand, when used in construction,
and quantity of sand used, and the method
lating the materials in forming the mortar,
as important an effect upon the final strength
k as the quality of cement itself.

g cement, a standard sand is usually em-
his sand may be obtained quite uniform in
n the execution of work, however, local sand
rally be employed; this varies widely in char-
should always be carefully considered upon
tant work, where the development of strength
g qualities in the mortar are of importance.

portance of the quality of sand in mortar is
only appreciated, and but little attention is
ven to securing good sand even when the
subjected to rigid requirements.

yman, in his book on concrete, in speaking
aterials used in concrete, says: "Considering
varied character of sand and gravel, it seems
attention should be given to the particulariza-

of it from an engineering point of view different, even in a small area; and to particular as to the character and quality of cement, and apparently regardless of that of the gravel, although the latter form 85% to the volume of concrete at the time of mixing, and is capable of vindication, especially as Portland-cement should be a monolithic mass, and the object is to retard induration and decrease strength." The *cal nature* of the sand does not appear to have any important bearing upon its usefulness in mortar. It is sometimes thought to exercise a slow action, and perhaps aid somewhat in the setting of the mortar. It is usually the best for that purpose. Calcareous sands are good, if not composed of soft particles. Argillaceous sand is less desirable, and has been found in some cases to cause ultimate disintegration in concrete, although a small admixture of clay in the mortar is not objectionable, and has been shown in experiments not to decrease the strength when present in quantity not exceeding 10% of the sand. For use in mortar should be clean, and as free from silt, mud, or organic matter as possible. In the presence of any foreign matter is to be

sands. sand is usually preferable to that which is provided it be fine enough to give a smooth surface it gives better strength. The coarse sand gives a rough surface to be coated with cement, and the joints are more easily filled. Fine sand requires more water in mixing in order to arrive at the proper consistency, and thus gives usually a more porous mortar. Fine sand may, however, be desirable when a smooth mortar is the object.

The use of a mixture of grains of various sizes is desirable, as giving less voids to be filled by cement; and it is frequently found that when the cement is not in considerable excess the strength obtained with such a mixture is much greater than is given by the large or small grains alone.

This is doubtless due to the voids in the sand being more completely filled by the cement. Large grains of sand are more desirable where a meagre mortar is employed, the quantity of cement being insufficient to fill the voids and only used to coat the grains and cement them together.

Sea-water is objectionable in mortar exposed to the weather on account of the increased porosity. In using quick-setting cement the dryness of the mortar is a matter of importance; if the sand be damp the mixture of sand and cement is made, sufficient moisture may be given off to induce hydration

set, was greatly modified in action, probably due to the hydration of the aluminate of lime. After ten minutes in contact with sand containing moisture, and then sifted out, had its time increased from a few minutes to several hours. When it was very wet, the action was more serious and a greater strength resulted.

ART. 72. PROPORTIONING MORTAR.

The proportions of the ingredients to be used are usually stated as a ratio of parts of cement to sand, and the quantities are determined either by weight or by volume. Cement should always be measured by weight on account of the variation in volume of different brands, and the difficulty of measuring by volume. Sand may be measured by volume.

The proportions of sand and cement to be used in mortar depend upon the nature of the work and the desired strength or imperviousness of the mortar. The volume of interstices to be filled with the forms and sizes of the grains of sand, and the quantity of cement necessary to reach the required strength with different sands varies considerably. The weight of cement of a given weight of sand is also greater when

Leclaire et Chaux hydrauliques (Paris, 1891).

portions most commonly used are for natural cements, one part cement to one or two parts sand, and for Portland cement one part cement to three parts sand. If the proportions of the mixture were regulated by the value of the sand, considerations of economy might frequently require changes in the proportions, and would usually demand the use of a sand not readily obtainable.

A mixture in a 1 to 3 proportion frequently gives greater strength than a poorer one mixed 1 to 2, and either of these would give equally good results in practice.

The cement in mortar must, for the best results, both in strength and in durability, be mixed with clean, well-sorted grains of sand so as to cause them to adhere to each other, and fill the voids between them. Mortar exposed to the action of water, particularly sea-water, should always contain a surplus of cement over and above what is necessary to fill the voids in the sand.

The following table gives as a minimum for mortar to be used in sea-water a proportion of 600 kilogrammes of cement to one cubic meter of sand, which is to be increased if the sand is not finely ground.

It is to be avoided, if possible; when used, the quantity of cement to be increased.

A complete filling of the voids in the sand so as to prevent the water from the interior of the mass and prevent the action of the magnesian salts upon the cement is a matter of first importance.

The mortar is to be subjected to the action of

ing of the lime forms a protection to the
ar, which is not subject, as in sea-water, to
he magnesian salts.

ART. 73. GAUGING MORTAR.

cement mortar, the cement and sand are
ly mixed dry, the water then added, and
orked to a uniformly plastic condition.
the mortar will depend upon the thorough-
peration; the cement must be uniformly
through the sand during the dry mixing,
ghly working the mass after the addition
will greatly increase its strength. In mix-
, by the ordinary method, a platform or
the sand and cement are placed upon the
ayers, with a layer of sand at bottom, and
and mixed with shovels until properly dis-
ugh the mass. The material is then formed
or a mound with a crater at the center, and
necessary added at once, after which the
hrown up from the sides until the water is
and then worked into a plastic condition.
to secure proper manipulation of the ma-
part of the workmen, it is quite common
at the whole mass shall be turned over a cer-
of times with the shovel, both dry and wet.
g should be quickly and energetically done,

until wanted, as the moisture commonly will to some extent act upon the cement. In large works mechanical mixers are frequently used with the advantage of greatly lessening the manual labor in manipulating the material, and also of insuring a more uniform mixing.

The quantity of water to be used in gauging mortar is determined only by experiment in each instance, depending upon the nature of the cement and sand, and the proportion of sand to cement. The water is considered as made up of two parts—that necessary to make the neat cement to a paste, and that required to wet the surfaces of the sand. The first varies with the quantity of cement, the second with the nature of the sand. Fine sand requires more water than coarse sand to reach the same consistency, and mortar should be made a little more wet than when using coarse sand, to give the best results in practice. The quantity of water also varies with the dryness of the sand and the humidity of the atmosphere.

The amount of water to be used in mixing mortar for ordinary masonry is such that the mortar when mixed shall have a stiff plastic condition. It should not be a soft, semi-fluid mass. The proper consistency is described by M. Chandlot as such that if the mortar be formed in the hand and allowed to fall from a small height, it should neither lose its

th it is to be in contact.

the proper quantity of water should first be determined by experiment, and afterward, in preparation for use in work, the required quantity of water should be added by measurement. The water should be added a little by little, or from a hose, should be added.

74. PREPARATION OF CONCRETE.

any mixture of mortar with coarse material, or broken stone, the office of the mortar is to bind together the pieces of the aggregate and fill the spaces between them. In engineering work the concrete is commonly formed from hydraulic mortar, *beton* being also frequently used to designate hydraulic concrete.

When concrete is made by hand the mortar is mixed in a separate manner; then the stone is spread over the mortar and thoroughly mixed with the mortar by means of shovels. The stone should be thoroughly wet before being mixed with the mortar, sufficient to prevent the absorption of water from the mortar, thus promoting the adhesion of the mortar to the aggregate.

Concrete should never, as is frequently done, be mixed to a fluid state; not only is the result weak, but the mortar is reduced by so doing, but it is properly mixed with the aggregate to form

the work. The consistency of concrete must depend upon its nature and method of placing. The greatest strength may usually be attained by a somewhat dry and heavily ramming, the mortar of such consistency that the concrete becomes jelly-like, water being brought to the surface by the ramming. An extreme either of dryness or wetness is dangerous.

Hand mixers are frequently employed for preparing concrete, and are very useful in saving labor. Large quantities are used. There are a number of forms which have proven effective in use, but it is unnecessary to enter into a discussion of them.

The aggregate used for concrete should be as hard as possible, and that of angular form is better than rounded. Angular forms give a greater surface for the adherence of the mortar in proportion to the volume of interstices to be filled with mortar. The materials should be uniform in quality. Where gravel is used which varies in size, it should be blended by mixing in order to obtain uniform strength in the concrete. Porous aggregates should be avoided, as they are likely to absorb water. When the materials are absorbent, they should be saturated in sprinkling before using, in order to prevent withdrawing water from the mortar before it sets in place.

ired to be water-tight, the amount of cement sufficient to fill the interstices in the mixed sand. The quantity of sand necessary in the stone may be determined by filling the stone with sand as closely as possible, and measuring the quantity of water which can be added to the measure; this gives the volume of sand necessary for the proper quantity of damp sand to be added to the measure by shaking it down so as to fill the voids. The volume of water which can then be added to the measure is the volume of cement paste necessary to fill the voids in the aggregate.

The strength of concrete usually varies nearly in proportion to the amount of cement used in forming it. If strong concrete is desired, it should be made by increasing the richness of the mortar in proportion to the increasing the proportion of mortar to sand. Above the point at which the sand fills the voids of the material. If the proportion of sand is increased beyond this point, the resulting concrete will be porous and weakly solidified; if it be greater, the excess of sand will be an element of weakness in the concrete. In the case of concrete in considerable masses the work is sometimes formed of very weak concrete, with a facing of stronger water-tight concrete. This weak concrete is frequently formed by omitting the sand altogether and simply mixing the cement with neat cement, causing the

to 5/10 of the volume, depending upon its uniformity in size. Where there is considerable variation in size, the voids may be somewhat less. When the interstices are to be filled, it is desirable that the aggregate contain material of various sizes, to reduce the volume of interstices. For this reason small gravel is sometimes mixed with broken stone in the preparation of concrete. The proportions in common use for concrete of Portland cement vary from 1 part cement, 2 parts sand, 5 parts broken stone to 1 part cement, 4 parts sand, 8 or 10 parts broken stone or gravel. Usually the mortar is made richer when natural cement is used. The proportions of course vary with the character of the materials to be used as well as that of the work to be done, and can only be properly determined by the exercise of good judgment, in the light of experience.

ART. 75. YIELD OF MORTAR AND CONCRETE.

The volume of mortar formed by mixing given quantities of cement and sand depends upon the densities of the materials and the volume of interstices in the sand. It is affected also by the method of preparing the mortar, the uniformity of the mixing, and the degree of compactness given.

The net volume of materials entering into the composition of mortar or concrete is readily found from their weights and densities, but it represents only approximately

ment is usually sold in barrels containing
 Natural cements are lighter, and are
 els of 260 to 320 lbs. Barrels of Rosen-
 usually contain 300 lbs.

of neat cement paste made by a given
 nt powder varies with the specific gravity
 and the amount of water necessary in
 lighter cements require more water and
 e for a given volume of cement than the
 To form a cubic foot of plastic paste
 y from 75 to 90 lbs. of natural-cement
 80 to 85 lbs. of Rosendale cement being
 about 95 to 100 lbs. of Portland cement

and mortar, where the cement and sand
 d by volume measured loose, the quantities
 n a cubic yard of mortar are approximately

Natural Cement. Pounds.	Portland Cement. Pounds.	Sand. Cu. Yd.
1050 to 1250	1350 to 1530	.65 to .70
640 " 720	810 " 920	.80 " .85
500 " 575	620 " 690	.93 " .96
400 " 460	500 " 575	1.00
320 " 375	400 " 460	1.00

e, when the aggregate is broken stone
 e, it is necessary, in order to fill the in-
 mortar, that the volume of mortar be 50%
 of the aggregate. For such concrete a
 ut .9 cubic yard of broken stone with .50

cement, 3 parts sand, and 5 parts broken stone. Where the stone is more irregular in size, or if gravel of smaller size be added, a smaller proportion of mortar will give good results. Thus, .6 cubic yard of broken stone with .4 cubic yard of gravel and .3 cubic yard of mortar has been found to yield 1 cubic yard of good concrete. This, using 1 to 2 mortar, gives the proper proportions: 1 part cement, 2 parts sand, 3 parts gravel, and 7 parts broken stone.

When the amount of mortar used is less than that stated above, and the interstices in the aggregate are not filled, the yield of concrete is about equal to the volume of aggregate employed.

ART. 76. MIXTURES OF LIME AND CEMENT.

Slaked lime is sometimes mixed with hydraulic cement for the purpose of decreasing the cost of construction. Experiments seem to indicate that a very considerable percentage of lime may frequently be added without material loss of strength in the mortar.

With Portland cement the addition of lime weakens the mortar somewhat, the decrease in strength augmenting rapidly as the proportion of lime increases.

With some American natural cements it has been found that a certain amount (sometimes 30% to 40%) of lime may be added without sensibly decreasing the strength of the mortar or impairing its hydraulic prop-

mortar by the admixture of lime, better
ained than by using a higher proportion
ortar thus formed is less porous than that
er proportion of sand, and it is also more
er to work. In making the mixture the
y slaked in the usual manner and used
ste, although it may be slaked to powder
with the cement. By the first method the
of the lime is insured.

e of lime causes the cement to become
he quick-setting cement being affected
an the less active ones.

small proportion of Portland cement is
el to hydraulic lime for the purpose of
setting and increasing the strength of

natural and Portland cement have fre-
ed in the United States for the purpose
e action of the quick-setting material or
construction. They seem generally to
ounded of those which would be obtained
ngly.

of all these mixtures will be found to
particular cement employed, and the
be known by trial in each instance. In
good results, the mixtures must be very

not injured by freezing, when frozen before the cement sets with extreme slowness, if at all, but after thawing it sets and hardens properly. Even for short periods—a few days—does not freeze, but the experiments of Mr. Cecil B. McGill University seem to show that if kept sufficient period it may finally set while frozen. The setting of cement which has been frozen is slower than that unfrozen, but it may ultimately have the same strength.

Construction during freezing weather is frequently injured by freezing, notwithstanding the fact that the cement itself shows no loss of strength due to the effect of frost coming upon the work. Fully hardened is frequently found to distort or show unequal settlement in it, and sometimes repeated thawing gradually cause the mortar to be displaced or of place or perhaps to become cracked and exposed on the outside. The construction of cement during freezing weather is therefore usually very hazardous, unless some means be adopted to counteract the freezing action. Many instances may be cited where extreme cold has not injured construction, without such precaution, with Portland cement mortar, and it is claimed by many engineers that it may be used with impunity in freezing weather, provided it is not placed in work while a freezing temperature prevails. It is commonly agreed that most

g been injured by changing temperature
er, although it may not have frozen for
e after setting.

commonly used in cold weather to prevent
mortar while it is soft. A strong solution,
saturated one, is employed. The salt, by
freezing of the water, prevents any distorting
ion upon the work due to the change in
mortar. The use of salt considerably
tivity of the cement, and mortar may
condition at freezing temperatures and
the temperature becomes sufficient to

early strength of cement mortar which
with salt water on exposure to low tem-
setting is usually greater than that of
ne salt and exposed at the same tempera-

salt upon the strength of various kinds
e different. In nearly all, the strength
in air is increased by its use. When
ept under water, most cements have
ly strength from the use of salt, which
final strength being somewhat reduced.
most Portland cements. Some natural
material loss of strength when mixed
while others are entirely ruined by a
with or without the use of salt. Care
e taken to determine the action of salt

times salt mortar which has been exposed to low temperature may lose its cohesion if submerged soon after setting.

It has sometimes been employed to prevent the setting of mortar, but its use has not become extensive and has usually proven unsatisfactory.

Hot water should not be used in mixing mortar in freezing weather. It not only decreases the strength of the mortar, but renders it more liable to injury from frost. Heating the stones or bricks in the construction of masonry in freezing weather may be beneficial, serving to accelerate the setting and keep the mortar from freezing while soft.

The injury done to the mortar by low temperatures is probably not usually due to freezing before setting, but to alternate thawing and freezing while work is still fresh, before the hardening is sufficiently advanced to render the mortar capable of adequately resisting the expansive force of water. The effect of frost upon mortar which has set is similar to that upon stone or brick, and is due to the increase in volume of water freezing in its pores. Its effect therefore depends both upon the porosity of the mortar and upon the strength it possesses to resist disintegration. The more rapid acquisition of strength by hydraulic cements may give them the advantage they possess in this regard.

Prof. Le Chatelier, from his experiments upon the effect of frost, concludes as follows: "This disintegration, like

the void are small. When the voids are large, the ice breaks with a pressure less which will rupture the mortar. For this of large sand are less affected, the voids and less numerous."

PROSITY AND PERMEABILITY OF MORTAR.

of cement mortar depends rather upon on of the materials in gauging than upon the cement. When the quantity of cement to fill the voids in the sand, spaces are permit the absorption of water without in-lume of the mortar.

mortar air-bubbles attach themselves to the number of which is greater as the and more wet. Working the mortar tends em. Voids in the mortar are also caused ation of surplus water used in mixing. water as the quantity of water used in gaug- and as the sand used is finer.

ability of cement mortars varies with the cement and the circumstances of its use. t Portland cement may be made practi- ble under a considerable head of water; of cement and sand seems always more ble, but when properly proportioned and ly permits very little water to pass. ability of mortar decreases rapidly with

blocks of mortar be submitted to the continuous action of water, the permeability diminishes very rapidly, and after a few months all mortars, except those of very coarse sand and feeble proportion of cement, become practically impermeable.

Both the porosity and permeability are less for mortar rich in cement than for that in which the proportion of cement is small. Mortar mixed dry is penetrated more readily than that mixed to a plastic or semi-plastic condition. With the lapse of time, however, the mortar mixed dry, if constantly exposed to water, approaches the others in resistance to permeation. The thoroughness of mixing and degree of compacting employed are more important factors than the absolute quantity of water used in mixing.

Fine sand, according to the experiments of M. Alexandre, renders the mortar more porous and less permeable than coarse sand. When the sand is of varying fineness both the porosity and permeability may be low. In any case, to attain a reasonable resistance to penetration, it is necessary that the interstices in the sand be entirely filled with cement. Cleanliness of the sand, and freedom from all foreign material, is of first importance in the preparation of impermeable mortar.

Masonry of ordinary brick or stone can only be made pervious by the application of a coating of some kind to its face. A plastering of neat cement or rich mortar may sometimes be used for this purpose, and

as with masonry, to coat the face of
in order that concrete may be reasonably
necessary that the quantity of cement
preparing it be sufficient to fill the voids in
employed, as well as that the voids in
pletely filled with cement paste in mak-

EXPANSION AND CONTRACTION OF MORTAR.

In large masses of masonry or concrete
is liable to occur in the volume of mortar
become of importance, and it may be
provision by which changes in dimen-
sion without injury to the work.

Rate of expansion for neat cement under
heat is, as previously stated, about the
same, although it may vary in individual
mortars containing sand, the coefficient
for neat cement.

Mortars differ considerably in their behavior during
the process of the hardening process, as to the
changes place in the volume of the mortar.
It is apt to swell and become distorted
in the process of disintegration,
any considerable change of this nature
probable destruction of the mortar. Per-
manent, although not altered in form, is
somewhat in dimensions during hard-

Massachusetts Institute of Technology for a committee of the American Society of Civil Engineers, found that for small blocks of mortar the change was the same in all directions; that for neat cements the linear contraction in air varied from 0.14% to 0.32% for the first twelve weeks after mixing, and the linear expansion in water varied from 0.04% to 0.25%. When sand was used the change was less, giving a contraction in air from 0.08% to 0.17%, and an expansion in water of from 0.00% to 0.08%.

The rapidity of the change varies somewhat with the activity of the cement; the conclusion being that a quick-setting cement changes more in volume than a slow-setting one.

Further experiment is desirable, that the action of the various classes of cement may be better understood.

ART. 80. EFFECT OF RETEMPERING MORTAR.

Masons frequently mix mortar in considerable quantities, and, if the mass becomes stiffened before being used by the setting of the cement, add more water and work again to a soft or plastic condition. After the second tempering the cement is much less active than at first, and remains a longer time in a workable condition.

This practice is not usually approved by engineers, and is not permitted in good engineering construction, although there is some dispute as to its injurious effect.

...plastic at the second working. The mortar so treated is very slow at first, but eventually (the tests extend over three years) attains its full strength as when gauged immediately.

It is frequently claimed that the adhesive properties of mortars are improved by giving it the "second cure." The common practice of masons who set fire-bricks and similar work is based upon this idea. An experiment to determine this point would be

of experiments other than those already mentioned seemed to show that in some instances the mortar by retempering, some cements would set the second time. Until more is known of the action of the material when subjected to such treatment it seems advisable to mix only such quantities as may be used before the initial set and to reject any material that may have become too stiff to be placed in the work.

des Ponts et Chaussées, 1888, vol. I. p. 375.

APPENDIX.

CTIONS FOR THE RECEPTION OF CEMENT.

GENERAL REMARKS.

tion which has been given of the various cement, the requirements of specifications considered, but it is thought desirable to actual specifications to show the required in practice.

tions recommended by the committee of Society of Testing Materials for use by engineers are first given. These specifications are as the standard of the best American cement, although many specifications in common in important particulars from them.

ifications of existing practice at the time are recommended by these specifications, of testing soundness and in the use of cement for rate of setting.

Standard Specifications recommended by Engineering Standards Committee" in 1905 are also

new brands, or of a single brand, complying with the above conditions, but depend upon the reliability of the material or perhaps upon occasional examinations of the material is up to standard. This is the practice upon ordinary railroad work, in some instances, where the use is continuous and contracts may be made for the material, is quite

seems, generally, to be no good reason for specifications in an indefinite manner. The conditions to be imposed may as easily be plainly stated, and there is no doubt as to the requirements.

A.

AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR TESTING MATERIALS.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON STANDARD SPECIFICATIONS FOR CEMENT.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

The remarks have been prepared with a view of pointing out the pertinent features of the various requirements and the precautions to be observed in the interpretation of the results of the tests.

The committee would suggest that the acceptance or rejection under these specifications be based on tests made by an experienced person having the proper means for conducting the tests.

th the results of other tests may afford
tions.

-The sieves should be kept thoroughly dry.
tting.—Great care should be exercised to
st pieces under as uniform conditions as
dden change or wide range of temperature
which the tests are made, a very dry or
ere, and other irregularities vitally affect
ng.

rength.—Each consumer must fix the
irements for tensile strength to suit his
. They shall, however, be within the

of volume.—The tests for constancy of
ided into two classes, the first normal, the
ited. The latter should be regarded as
y test only, and not infallible. So many
into the making and interpreting of it that
ed with extreme care.

g the pats the greatest care should be
oid initial strains due to moulding or to
g out during the first twenty-four hours.
ld be preserved under the most uniform
sible, and rapid changes of temperature
ded.

re to meet the requirements of the accele-
l not be sufficient cause for rejection. The
owever, be held for twenty-eight days and

unsoundness, nor can the cement be considered satisfactory simply because it passes the tests.

STANDARD SPECIFICATIONS FOR CEMENT.

General conditions.--All cement shall be inspected. Cement may be inspected either at the place of manufacture or on the work.

Order to allow ample time for inspecting and testing. Cement should be stored in a suitable weather-tight building having the floor properly blocked or raised from the ground.

Cement shall be stored in such a manner as to permit easy access for proper inspection and identification of the shipment.

Inspection facility shall be provided by the contractor. A period of at least twelve days allowed for the inspection and necessary tests.

Cement shall be delivered in suitable packages. Brand and name of manufacturer plainly marked on each package.

Each bag of cement shall contain 94 lbs. of cement net. A barrel of Portland cement shall contain 4 bags, and a barrel of natural cement shall contain 3 bags, based on net weight.

Cement failing to meet the seven-day requirements shall be held awaiting the results of the twenty-eight-day tests. If rejection.

with all subsequent amendments thereto.
Acceptance or rejection shall be based on the
requirements:

NATURAL CEMENT.

Definition.—This term shall be applied to the
product resulting from the calcination of
limestone at a temperature only suffi-
cient to drive off the carbonic-acid gas.

Gravity.—The specific gravity of the cement
at 100° C. shall be not less than 2.8.

Residue.—It shall leave by weight a residue of
not more than 10 per cent on the No. 100 and 30 per cent
on the No. 20 sieve.

Setting.—It shall develop initial set in not
less than 10 minutes, and hard set in not less than thirty
minutes after three hours.

Strength.—The minimum requirements for
strength for briquettes 1 inch square in cross-
section within the following limits, and shall
show no regression in strength within the periods

NEAT CEMENT.

	Strength.
in moist air.	50-100 lbs.
in moist air, 6 days in water).	100-200 "
" " " 27 " " ")	200-300 "

Change of volume.—Pats of neat cement about 1 inch in diameter, $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick at center, tapering to a point at the edges, shall be kept in moist air for a period of twenty-

days. One pat is then kept in air at normal temperature. Another is kept in water maintained as near 70° F. as practicable.

The pats are observed at intervals for at least 7 days, and, to satisfactorily pass the tests, they must be firm and hard and show no signs of disintegrating, cracking, or disintegrating.

PORTLAND CEMENT.

Definition.—This term is applied to the finely divided product resulting from the calcination to fusion of an intimate mixture of properly selected argillaceous and calcareous materials, and in which no addition greater than 3 per cent has been made of any substance to calcination.

Specific gravity.—The specific gravity of the cement, when dried at 100° C., shall be not less than 3.10.

Residue.—It shall leave by weight a residue of not more than 8 per cent on the No. 100, and not more than 15 per cent on the No. 200 sieve.

Time of setting.—It shall develop initial set in not more than thirty minutes, but must develop hard set in not more than one hour, nor more than ten hours.

Strength within the periods specified:

NEAT CEMENT.

	Strength.
in moist air.	150-200 lbs.
in air, 6 days in water).	450-550 "
" " 27 " " " "	550-650 "

PART CEMENT, 3 PARTS SAND.

in moist air, 6 days in water).	150-200 lbs.
" " " 27 " " " ").	200-300 "

Test of volume.—Pats of neat cement about 1 inch in diameter, one half inch thick at the centre, to a thin edge, shall be kept in moist air for twenty-four hours.

They are then kept in air at normal temperature and observed at intervals for at least 28 days.

Each pat is kept in water maintained as near normal temperature as practicable, and observed at intervals for 28 days.

Each pat is exposed in any convenient way in a current of steam, above boiling water, in a loosely covered container for five hours.

The pats to satisfactorily pass the requirements shall be firm and hard and show no signs of distortion, cracking, or disintegration.

Sulphuric acid and magnesia.—The cement shall contain not more than 1.75 per cent of anhydrous sulphuric acid (SO_3), nor more than 4 per cent of mag-

SUPPORTED BY

TUTION OF CIVIL ENGINEERS.
TUTION OF MECHANICAL ENGINEERS.
TUTION OF NAVAL ARCHITECTS.
AND STEEL INSTITUTE.
TUTION OF ELECTRICAL ENGINEERS.

TANDARD SPECIFICATIONS FOR
PORTLAND CEMENT.

preparation.—(1) The cement is to be
timately mixing together calcareous and
aterials, burning them at a clinkering
nd grinding the resulting clinker. No
y material is to be made after burning,
desired by the manufacturer, and if not
writing by the consumer, in which case
te or water may be used. The cement,
all contain not more than 2 per cent of
that water has been added or has been
rbed from the air. If calcium sulphate
more than 2 per cent calculated as anhy-
sulphate of the weight of the cement shall

and preparation for testing and analysis.—(2)
e cement has been bulked at the maker's

the same heap, so distributed as to insure practicable a fair average sample of the all to be mixed together and the sample be taken therefrom.

gauging the tests, the sample so obtained is out for a depth of 3 inches for twenty-four temperature of 58° to 64° Fahr.

cases where consignments are of 100 tons samples selected as above for each consigner at the maker's works or after delivery where the cement is to be used, are to be for testing and for chemical analysis. In no case so tested and analyzed to be accepted or previously certified in writing by the consumer of satisfactory quality. Payment for such analyses to be made by the consumer, the consumer supplying the cement required for the same charge. When consignments of less than 100 tons are to be supplied, the maker shall, if required, issue certificates for each delivery, to the effect that the cement complies with the terms of this standard, with regard to quality, tests, and analyses, no payment being made by the consumer for such certificate nor for the making of such analyses.

and it be deemed more convenient by the consumer, the samples for testing should be taken at the maker's works before delivery, the latter are, in

sampled by him. No parcel is to be sent away without an order has been previously received by the consumer from the said consumer to the effect that the parcel in question has been approved.

and sieves.—(6) The cement shall be ground to the following degrees of fineness, viz.:

When passed on a sieve $76 \times 76 = 5776$ meshes per square inch, the residue is not to exceed 5 per cent.

When passed on a sieve $180 \times 180 = 32,400$ meshes per square inch, the residue is not to exceed $22\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

The sieves are to be prepared from standard wire; the wire for the 5776 mesh is to be .0044 inch diameter; for the 32,400 mesh .0018 inch. The wire shall be drawn (not twilled), the cloth being carefully mounted on the sieves without distortion.

Specific gravity.—(7) The specific gravity of the cement shall be not less than 3.15 when sampled and hermetically sealed at the makers' works, nor less than 3.10 if sampled after delivery to the consumer.

Chemical composition.—(8) The cement is to comply with the following conditions as to its chemical composition:—There shall be no excess of lime, that is to say, the proportion of lime shall not be greater than is necessary to saturate the silica and alumina present. The percentage of insoluble residue shall not exceed 5 per cent; that of magnesia shall not exceed 3 per cent; that of sulphuric anhydride shall not exceed 1 per cent.

form a smooth, easily worked paste the trowel cleanly in a compact mass. To be used for gauging, the temperature of the test-room at the time the said operation is to be performed, being from 58° to 64° Fahr.

The mortar as gauged as above is to be filled, without tamping, into moulds; each mould resting on a flat surface until the cement has set. When the mortar is sufficiently set to enable the mould to be removed without injury to the briquette, such removal may be made. The said briquettes shall be kept in a moist place and placed in fresh water twenty-four hours for gauging and kept there until broken, after which the test briquettes are submerged in water every seven days and the temperature maintained between 58° and 64° Fahr.

10) Briquettes of neat cement are to be made at seven and twenty-eight days, six briquettes for each period. The average breaking strength of the six briquettes shall be taken as the average tensile strength for each period. For testing, each briquette is to be held in strong metal jaws, the jaws being slightly greased where gripped by the jaws. The load must then be steadily and uniformly applied from zero, increasing at the rate of 100 pounds per second. The briquettes are to bear on breaking less than the following tensile stresses:

and "slow."*

The setting-time shall not be less than ten more than thirty minutes.

The setting-time shall not be less than half more than two hours.

The setting-time shall not be less than two more than five hours.*

temperature of the air in the test-room at the time and of the water used is to be between 58° hr.

ment shall be considered as "set" when a needle at end $\frac{1}{16}$ inch square, weighing in all $2\frac{1}{2}$ lbs., make an impression when its point is applied the surface.

ss.—(13) The cement shall be tested by the er method, and is in no case to show a greater than 12 millimeters after twenty-four hours' and 6 millimeters after 7 days' acration.

The apparatus for conducting the Le Chatelier is of a small split cylinder of spring brass or able metal of 0.5 millimeter (.0197 inch) in 30 millimeters (1.1875 inches) internal diam- 30 millimeters high, forming the mould to which side of the split are attached two indicators 6.5 inches) long from the cylinder, ted ends.

a specially slow-setting cement is required the minimum ing shall be specified.

The mould is then covered with another glass plate, a small weight is placed on this, and the mould is slowly placed in water at 58° to 64° Fahr. and left for twenty-four hours.

The distance separating the indicator points is then measured, and the mould placed in cold water, which is brought to the boiling-point in 15 to 30 minutes and left standing for six hours. After cooling, the distance separating the points is again measured; the difference between the two measurements represents the expansion of the cement, which must not exceed the limits laid down in this specification.

The tests and analyses hereinbefore referred to in no case relate to a larger quantity of cement than was sampled at one time.

Success.—(15) No cement is to be approved or rejected unless it fully complies with the foregoing con-

C.

S. RECLAMATION SERVICE, 1905.

F. H. NEWELL, *Chief Engineer.*

Definition.—The cement shall be high-grade Portland cement. By the term Portland cement is to be understood the material obtained by finely pulverized clinker produced by burning to semi-fusion an intimate

sum of the silica, alumina, and ferric be less than 1.7 to 1 nor more than 2.2 not contain over 3 per cent of magnesia of sulphate of lime. But in certain cases amounts of these substances are objectionable. The charge may specify lower percentages. The uncombined lime shall be determined by chemical analyses or by inspection at the factory.

Cement will be received only from manufacturers of recognized agents, and the name of the brand in all cases be stated.

Weight per barrel or sack.—The average weight per barrel shall be less than 375 lbs. net. Four sacks shall weigh one barrel of cement. If the weight as determined by weighings is found to be below 375 lbs. the contractor may be required to supply, free of charge, the United States, an additional amount of cement to make up the shortage.

Damaged cement.—If the cement is delivered in barrels shall be strong and lined with galvanized iron. Cement shall be free from lumps. Any cement that is broken or that contains damaged cement shall be rejected by the United States agent in local charge. Samples of cement are to be taken from each sack with a sampling-tube in such manner as to be representative of the average of the packages. They are to

rate and tested separately. Where the results indicate variation in the quality of the cement, 1 barrels or sacks will be sampled and tested.

Storage and testing.—No cement shall be shipped less than sixty days after its manufacture, except in case of an emergency, and with the approval of the engineer in charge, a shorter time may be allowed, if the cement shows indications of unsoundness, a longer time may be required. The contractor shall maintain, in sacks or barrels, such stocks of cement as the engineer shall require, free of expense to the State, for sampling and testing during a period of thirty-eight days.

Notice of shipment.—The engineer shall give notice in writing to the contractor of the approximate requirements for cement shipments and of dates for sampling. In the event the contractor shall be responsible for the delivery of the cement in good condition at the place of shipment.

Factory inspection.—The Government engineer, or authorized agent, shall at all times have liberty to inspect the materials, process of manufacture, and laboratory records of analyses and tests at the works.

Soundness.—Ninety-five per cent by weight must pass through a No. 100 sieve having 10,000 meshes per square inch, the wire to be No. 40 Stubbs wire gauge; and five per cent by weight must pass through a No. 200

be less than 3.

—Pats are to be made of neat mortar consistency. The pats are to be moulded on a flat surface, they are to be circular in shape, 3 inches in diameter, 1 inch thick in the centre, and drawn to a circular rim of 1 1/2 inches circumference, and are to be kept under a moist atmosphere, until finally set. When put in water, the temperature of which is at the boiling-point and kept at that point until the pat softens, cracks, warps, or disintegrates, the cement is unsound.

Setting.—The cement shall not acquire its final set less than forty-five minutes, and must set within twelve hours. The pats of cement soundness may be used in determining the final set. The cement is considered to have attained final set when the pat will bear, without being indented, a wire 1/8 inch in diameter and weighing one fourth pound. The final set has been attained when the pat will bear, without being indented, a needle 3/8 inch in diameter and weighing one pound.

Briquettes.—In making briquettes, neat cement of normal consistency will be used. The cement is roughly mixed with a trowel and kneaded with the thumbs, a blunt stick, or a similar implement. Briquettes will be made from each sample.

For the preparation of briquettes, the proportions shall be one part of cement to three parts of standard

above shall stand a minimum tensile strain
inch as follows:

air and 6 days in water.....	450 lbs.
" " 27 " " "	550 "

l-mortar briquettes, prepared as specified
stand a minimum tensile strain per square
ws:

in air and 6 days in water.	175 lbs.
" " " 27 " " "	225 "

Requirements.—The above are to be considered the
requirements. The neat tests are to be con-
sidered less value than those of sand and cement.
Eight-day tests must always be higher than
neat tests. A cement may be rejected which
fails at any of the above requirements.

D.

REQUIREMENTS FOR MUNICIPAL WORK IN
PHILADELPHIA. DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC
WORKS.

BUREAU OF SURVEYS.

GEORGE S. WEBSTER, *Chief Engineer.*

Net weight.—Portland cement only shall be
weighed. Bags shall contain 376 lbs. net. Bags shall
weigh 16 lbs. net each.

use it. The chief engineer shall be notified on receipt of each shipment at the work. No cement is to be used unless delivered in suitable packages and properly stored.

—The cement must be protected in a suitable building having a wooden floor or platform raised above the ground, and may be reinspected at any time.

brand.—The failure of a shipment of cement to meet the following requirements may result in the use of the same brand on that work. The cement must be immediately removed from the work.

The acceptance or rejection of a cement to be used shall rest with the chief engineer, and will be subject to the following requirements:

Specific gravity. Not less than 3.1.

Tensile strength:

(1 part of cement, 3 parts of sand, 1 part of water, 6 days in air, 6 days in water). 500 lbs.

(1 part of cement, 3 parts of sand, 1 part of water, 27 days in air, 27 days in water). 600 lbs.

(1 part of cement, 3 parts of sand, 1 part of water, 6 days in air, 6 days in water) 1 part of

3 parts standard quartz sand. 170 lbs.

(1 part of cement, 3 parts of sand, 1 part of water, 27 days in air, 27 days in water) 1 part of

3 parts standard quartz sand. 240 lbs.

—Residue on No. 100 sieve not over 8 per cent by weight.

—Residue on No. 200 sieve not over 25 per cent by weight.

—Cement shall require at least 20 minutes to develop

of volume.—Pats of cement 3 inches in half inch thick at centre, tapering to thin ed in water after 24 hours in moist air, signs of cracking, distortion or disintegration pats in air shall also remain sound and

anhydride (SO_3). Not more than 1.75 per

MgO).—Not more than 4 per cent.

for testing shall be 1 sq. in. area of cross- es shall be of brass-wire cloth having ap- 800 and 37,500 meshes per sq. in. respec- diameter of wire being .0045 and .0023

requirements.—All cements shall meet such requirements as to chemical and accelerated chief engineer may determine. The re- or "set" may be modified where the con- ch as to make it advisable.

REQUIREMENTS FOR PORTLAND CEMENT.

CHICAGO, Nov. 28, 1904.

It will be sampled in such a way as to
show the quality of cement in the car. Such
tests as are made in the Company's Laboratory,
in accordance with the Standard Specifications for
Cement adopted by the Committee of the
American Society of Testing Materials in June, 1904,
under the title "General Conditions," Paragraphs 1 to
10, inclusive, "Strength," which will be as specified
in the Standard Specifications, are those recommended
by the American Society of Testing Materials. Reports of the Special Committee "On
Cement," of the American Society of
Testing Materials, January, 1904.

*Fineness, Time of Setting, Constancy
of Volume, Amount of Sulphuric Acid and Mag-
nesia* with the specifications of the "Ameri-
can Society of Testing Materials," above referred to.

TENSILE STRENGTH.

Requirements for tensile strength for
square in section shall be as follows:
All shall show no retrogression in strength
between tests specified and the sand tests shall show
at least 15% between 7- and 28-day tests.

(one part cement to three parts sand):

day in moist air and 6 days in water). . 175 lbs.

" " " " " 27 " " "). . 250 "

GENERAL CONDITIONS.

shall be uniform in color, free from lumps and
stances, and shall have been properly aged.

shall be delivered in suitable packages with
and the name of the manufacturer plainly
ereon.

of cement shall contain 94 lbs. cement net.
of Portland cement shall contain four bags.

ts made by the Railway Company shall be
e Engineer and Superintendent of Bridges
ings reserves the right to reject, on the first
test, any shipment of cement because of failure
e above requirements, or for any other cause
may deem sufficient.

rejected on account of failure to meet the
uirements will be held subject to the order of
er and at his expense for freight charges to and
point where the cement was to have been used.

J. C. HAIN,

Engr. Mas. Const.

:
LOWETH,

Engr. and Supt. B. and B.

THE SECOND PARAGRAPH OF "SPECIFICATION FOR PORTLAND CEMENT" OF THE CHICAGO, AND ST. PAUL RAILWAY COMPANY, UNDER DATE 28, 1904.

SPECIFIC GRAVITY.

Specific gravity of the cement, thoroughly dried at 100° F., to be less than 3.10.

FINENESS.

By weight a residue of not more than 8% on the No. 100 sieve and not more than 45% on the No. 200 sieve.

TIME OF SETTING.

Initial set in not less than thirty minutes; develop hard set in not less than one hour and ten hours.

CONSTANCY OF VOLUME.

Test specimen about three inches in diameter, with a hole at the centre, and tapering to a thin point at the top, to be tested in moist air for a period of twenty-

days. The specimen, after being kept in air at normal temperature and humidity, shall be tested for at least 28 days.

of steam, above boiling water, in a loosely
for five hours.

s, to satisfactorily pass the requirements,
firm and hard, and show no signs of distort-
g, cracking, or disintegrating.

SULPHURIC ACID AND MAGNESIA.

nt shall not contain more than 1.75% of
sulphuric acid (SO), nor more than 4%
(MgO).

J. C. HAIN,
Engr. Mas. Const.

LOWETH,
gr. and Supt. B. and B.

F.

ATIONS FOR MUNICIPAL WORK AT WASHINGTON, D. C.

Dow, *Inspector of Asphalts and Cements.*

PORTLAND CEMENT.

—Not less than 95 per cent to pass a 50-
and not less than 90 per cent through a 100-

etting.—Initial set, in not less than 45 minutes,

until hard set, rest of day in water) :	
ent.	225 lbs.
air 1 day, in water 6 days) :	
ent.	450 lbs.
ts sand.	175 "
air 1 day, in water 27 days) :	
ent.	550 lbs.
ts sand.	225 "

neat into wedge-shaped pats about three
 a side, half an inch thick at back tapering
 edge, the cement must show no signs of
 warping after being in air or water at normal
 for 28 days.

t which shows signs of swelling after being
 rejected.

must be properly seasoned; too fresh cement
 nt will be rejected.

shall contain over 2 per cent of sulphuric

Portland.—Cement furnished under this
 must comply with the preceding specifica-

Portland.—Cement furnished under this
 must comply with the preceding specifica-
 n addition must meet the following require.
 s B cement is intended for special use in the

may be satisfactorily drawn within 24 hours
g a concrete made of cement one part, sand
broken stone three parts, and pebbles three
the temperature is at or above 40° Fahr., may
as Class B cement.

e.—Each bidder must deliver at D. C.
house prior to time of opening proposals, a
rel of the cement which he proposes to furnish.

ge.—Portland cement delivered in wood will
in new, strong, serviceable barrels, lined
Weight to be 400 pounds gross, and the
the cement to be not less than 375 pounds.
cement delivered in sacks will be packed in
serviceable canvas sacks, containing one fourth
ntity specified to be delivered in barrel. The
e returned to the contractor or paid for at the
cents each. All sacks will be subject to in-
d approval by the Commissioners.

of delivery.—Cement will be delivered at
house, located on Canal street, between Dela-
e and First street S. W., or F. O. B. cars on
altimore and Ohio, or Philadelphia, Baltimore
ngton Railroads, at such points as may be
y the Commissioners, D. C.

—Delivery must be commenced within thirty
notice of award of contract and prosecuted at
e, not exceeding one fifth of the total amount
t in any one month, as may be ordered in.

ment in arrears (or such less quantity
red) in open market, in which event
t over and above contract rates will be
the contractor in default and deducted
that may be due or may become due
it is also reserved to the Commissioners,
the remedies prescribed above, to charge
ractor and deduct from any moneys
ay thereafter become due, the sum of
them (Sundays and legal holidays not
ted as liquidated and fixed damages
ractor's failure to properly perform the
uct.

Cement will be sampled after delivery.
seven-day test herein provided will be
acceptance, but the right to reject shall
any time before final payment or the
t in question. All tests will be made
prescribed by the committee of the
of Civil Engineers, with such modi-
employed in the laboratory of the En-
at, and which are open to the inspec-
ractors. All cements will, from time
ected to chemical analysis, and must
m any foreign substance or deleterious
the elements are combined in proper
cure the best results and insure per-
ments must be of uniform quality and
e Commissioners. The works of the

language to the inspector or other representative district or otherwise impede or embarrass him in charge of his duties shall be immediately removed contractor, and not again employed without the of the Commissioners. Should the conduct or of the contractor require additional inspectors, be appointed and the cost thereof, not exceed- 5 per diem (of ten hours) for each inspector, charged against the contractor.

NATURAL CEMENT.

ess.—Not less than 95 per cent, to pass a 50- ve, and not less than 82 per cent through a 100- ve.

of setting.—Initial set, in not less than 10 nor an 30 minutes, when mixed with the smallest of water between the temperatures of 70° and °.

strength:

(in air until hard set, rest of day in water):

at cement. 80 lbs.

s (in air 1 day, in water 6 days):

at cement. 150 lbs.

0 parts sand. 80 "

ys (in air 1 day, in water 27 days):

at cement. 200 lbs.

0 parts sand. 150 "

28 days.
which shows signs of swelling after being
rejected.
must be properly seasoned; too fresh cement
will be rejected.
shall contain over 2 per cent of sulphuric

Each bidder must deliver at D. C. Cement
time of opening proposals, a sample barrel
cement which he proposes to furnish.

Natural hydraulic cement will be packed
in reusable canvas sacks of uniform size. The
cement is to be returned to the contractor or paid for at the
rate of 10 cents each for small sacks and 10 cents for
large sacks. All sacks will be subject to inspection and
approval of the Commissioners.

Natural cement will be paid for at the
rate of 10 cents per barrel. Each sack will con-
tain 94 pounds. The contractor will be required
to furnish cement in sacks of uniform size, and bidder
must state whether it is proposed to furnish cement in
barrels or in 150-pound sacks.

INDEX.

	PAGE
.....	223
soundness.	182
value of.	196
.....	
t of fineness upon.	79
t of retempering upon.	255
for.	206, 208
by chemical analysis.	211
ity.	
on strength.	77
.....	242
ing of mortar.	74
.....	203
pecifications for.	265
.....	30
ct upon soundness.	84
.....	6
of.	216
of.	213
.....	4
.....	62
d cement.	35
ect upon soundness.	88
a, effect of.	87
.....	24
f briquette.	135
f clip.	160
d of making briquettes.	143

test for apparent density.	106
for fineness.	115
for normal consistency.	118
for rate of setting.	124
for specific gravity.	111
Testing Materials specifications.	258
for chemical analysis.	212
for soundness.	194
for strength.	172
Method of chemical.	212
Density, tests for.	99
Expansion.	176
Permeability tests.	227
Stress in tension tests.	156
.	21
's apparatus for expansion.	178
mer.	147
for soundness.	191
breaking under tension.	155
for compression tests.	163
for strength tests.	139
for transverse tests.	165
form for adhesive tests.	207
machine-made.	147
method of storing.	146
specifications for making.	273
storage of.	167
ifications for soundness.	193
standard specifications.	264
s for fineness.	116
ment.	28
egree of.	78
fect upon magnesia.	86
upon specific gravity.	113
upon weight.	99
hydraulic lime.	16

upon setting.	89
upon soundness, tests.	202
of making briquettes.	149
for soundness.	104
of making briquettes.	141
enometer.	108
action of.	64, 78
effect upon hardening.	94, 169
e mixture.	246
ettes for tension tests.	161
is of cement.	210
value of tests for.	98
osition. See Composition.	
ients.	2
e of sand.	235
mena of cement burning.	29
of lime burning.	16
of setting and hardening.	61
R.R. specification for cement.	277
cements.	22
n tests.	159
lip.	160
ndness.	173
, specification for.	278
American natural cements.	50
cement, French specifications.	211
specification for.	263, 266, 271, 276, 281
grappiers.	20
hydraulic lime.	14, 20
natural cement.	46
Portland cement.	32, 35
specification of Am. Soc. for Test-	
ing Materials.	212
puzzolana.	21
sts.	162
form for briquette.	133
ng.	250

effect upon strength tests.	107
ion of Portland cement.	36, 38, 41
ion of masonry during freezing weather.	248
on and expansion of mortar.	253
set.	169
a of natural cement.	23, 45
of Portland cement.	23, 30, 281
oriquettes kept in.	168
effect upon soundness.	92
tests for soundness.	184
ent, effect on hardening.	74
er's test for soundness.	193
of materials for concrete.	245
n and contraction of mortar.	253
accelerated tests.	192
Bauschinger apparatus.	178
Le Chatelier apparatus.	180
Long-bar apparatus.	177
measurement of.	174
tests.	175
ve elements, action of.	200
e to air, effect upon results of tests.	203
affecting strength tests.	167
rule for strength.	170
test for soundness.	186
ks testing-machine.	156
test for homogeneity.	217
s, Am. Soc. C. E. test.	115
effect upon free lime.	84
upon soundness.	86
tests.	201
upon strength.	78
upon weight.	106
of sand, effect on porosity.	252

soundness.	186
or tension test.	159
specimen for permeability test.	229
briquette.	
on of.	13, 202
t upon soundness.	83
t upon mortar.	76, 91, 248
for mortar.	231
ated tests for soundness.	192
d of determining consistency.	120
of making briquettes.	140
mendations for soundness.	198
rd sand.	137
adhesive strength.	208
compressive strength.	163
homogeneity.	218
permeability.	230
soundness.	174
r.	239
for briquette.	134
d apparatus for weight test.	103
d of making briquettes.	142
mendations for soundness tests.	198
for machine-made briquettes.	148
rd sand.	136
or adhesive strength.	208
or soundness.	173
dles.	122
ent.	24, 56
nition.	18
rrete.	242
ent.	29
rials.	26
ement, chemical theory of.	61
definition.	59

of magnesia	60
of sea-water	93
of temperature	75
factors affecting	167
Le Chatelier's theory of	62
Richardson's theory of	64
of lime	12
at, action upon cement	199
homogeneity, tests for	217
t strength tests	183, 189
tests for soundness	182
measurement of expansion	192
value of	196
t-water and steam test for soundness	186
t water, use in mixing mortar	250
hydraulic index	7
effect upon soundness	82
of Portland cement	32
lime, burning	16
composition	14
definition	13
manufacture	15
mersion, character of water	169
inclined-plane apparatus for weight test	102
index, hydraulic	7
redients, hydraulic	7
erpretation of results of strength tests	170
of soundness tests	196
on oxide, action of	4
determination of	213
in Portland cement	45
nieson briquette machine	149
ins for Portland cement	27
ln tests for soundness	184

.....	2
g of.	13
, definition.	12
.....	2
th cement.	246
.....	12
f.	I, 10
ation of.	7
.....	9
.....	8
atus for soundness.	177
rasion test.	223
aking briquettes.	147
nsion tests.	155
g for briquettes.	153
for soundness.	187
ents.	48
ct of.	4
on Portland cement.	85
on soundness.	94, 193
ermination of.	215
ttes, specifications.	273
de, action of.	6
f cement.	25
f grappier's cement.	56
f slag cement.	52
ed by freezing.	248
ailability of.	252
adhesive tests.	208
concrete.	242, 245
natural cement.	46
Portland cement.	25, 31, 35
slag cement.	51
proportions for mortar.	237

ac test for homogeneity.	217
composition of Portland cement.	35, 42, 65
ments.	24, 55
mechanical.	153
mortar.	240
of lime and cement.	246
set.	146
at test for soundness.	185
, effect on strength tests.	168
effect of freezing.	76
of retempering.	254
expansion and contraction of.	253
gauging.	239
lime.	12
porosity and permeability.	251
proportioning.	237
salt in.	249
sand for.	234
strength of briquettes.	172
strength of.	71
tests of.	232
for freezing of.	231
for permeability.	227
for porosity.	225
yield of.	232
variations in results of strength tests.	130
yield of.	244
for briquettes.	136
 cement, composition of.	 46
definition.	23, 45
specification.	261
Portland cement.	46
ry's investigations.	38
consistency.	117

volume, definition.	81
ness.	121
mortar.	252
effect upon soundness.	93
tests for.	227
in strength tests.	131, 146
specifications.	274
action of.	6
rtar.	251
tests for.	225
at, definition.	23, 30, 270, 281
ination of.	216
briquettes.	149
r soundness.	193
materials for Portland cement.	38
concrete.	243
mortar.	237
.	21
.	164
.	20
l required for mortar.	235
ter for tests.	117
ation of stress.	162, 164
ing of cement.	59
of cement.	58
specifications for.	259, 261, 269
.	273, 275, 280, 284
tests for.	120
hot tests for soundness.	200
abrasion.	223
ngth tests, interpretation of.	170
mortar.	254
investigations.	41
method of chemical analysis.	212

upon strength of mortar.	249
mortar in freezing weather.	249
ment.	264
specifications for.	271
ettes, machine method for.	152
at.	57
upon hardening.	70
soundness.	95
mortar.	234
r, effect of fineness upon.	79
hardening of.	71
porosity and permeability.	71
quality of.	71, 136
tests for rate of setting.	126
ortions in mortar.	237
for.	136, 232
specifications.	268
olumenometer.	107
effect upon aluminates.	89
upon hardening.	73
upon soundness.	93
tests for soundness.	176
of mortar.	255
cement, change of temperature during.	127
definition.	58
effect of age upon.	77
of air upon.	74
of aluminates.	88
of calcium sulphate.	89
of consistency.	168
of fineness upon.	78
of temperature upon.	75
of water upon.	73, 74
Le Chatelier's theory.	62
Richardson's theory.	64
tests for rate of.	121

of	62
Portland cement	35
ette for compression tests	164
grains	236
definition	24, 51
effect of calcium sulphate on	90
ution	1
raulic lime	17
ataneous	11
steam	12
chemical industry, method for cement analysis	212
to prevent freezing	250
termination of	216
ns, theory of	43
accelerated tests	182
American tests	194
definition	81
effect of air-slaking on tests for	203
of aluminates of lime	88
of calcium sulphate	202
of exterior agencies	91
of fineness upon tests for	201
of magnesia	86
of sulphur	89
flame test	186
film test	184
Le Chatelier's test	269
measurement of expansion	176
pressure test	193
results of tests upon	200
steam and hot-water test	186
steam test for	196, 263
tests for	173
specifications for	262, 263, 269, 273, 276, 281, 285
value of accelerated tests for	196
of tests for	99

specifications for.	259, 261, 266, 273, 275
test for homogeneity.	221
Specifications, British standard.	264
C., M. & St. Paul Railway.	277
for cement.	258
for municipal work in Philadelphia.	274
in Washington.	280
for natural cement.	261
for strength.	171
of Am. Soc. for Testing Materials	258
of U. S. Reclamation service.	270
Specimens for compressive tests.	163
for transverse tests.	165
Standard sand for testing cement.	136
Steam and hot-water test for soundness.	186
test for soundness.	196
Storage of briquettes.	145, 162
effect of temperature.	167
of cement.	203
Stress, application of tensile.	159
Strength of mortar.	71
effect of free lime upon.	84
of magnesia upon.	87
of salt upon.	249
methods of testing.	129
variations in results of tests of.	130
hot tests.	183, 189
making briquettes for tests of.	140
tests of adhesive.	206
Sulphate of lime, action of.	67
Sulphur, determination of.	216
effect upon soundness.	89
in slag cement.	52
Sulphuric acid, action of.	6
determination of.	216

upon strength tests.	167
ansion of mortar.	253
r keeping briquettes.	140
r standard tests.	132
r storing briquettes.	167
sts for freezing of mortar.	231
specifications. 259, 261, 263, 267, 274, 275, 277, 281, 284	
value of tests for.	98
aking briquettes.	155
m for briquettes.	134
e of briquette.	135
.	223
strength.	206
g before testing.	203
C. E. test for soundness.	195
st for soundness.	191
temperature during setting.	128
ve strength.	162
.	113
t, object of.	96
.	231
ity.	217
or soundness.	184
ent of expansion.	176
of testing.	97
ests for soundness.	173
ity.	227
.	225
ests for soundness.	193
itting.	121
mortar.	138
lar.	138
.	232
of cement.	98
s, effect of fineness.	201
s, effect of sulphate of lime.	202
avity.	106

of specific-gravity test.	113
of mortar.	232
apparatus for weight test.	100
machine for making briquettes.	148
test for soundness.	191
tests.	165
specimens for.	133
.	20
causes of.	82
reduced by air-slaking.	203
formula for strength.	170
Information Service, specifications.	270
accelerated tests.	196
various tests.	99
on results of strength tests.	131
test apparatus.	118, 123, 125
ASTM, D. C., specifications.	280
effect of character of water upon soundness.	91
of immersing mortar in.	74
of quality of water used in mixing.	73
on rate of hardening.	71
on strength of mortar.	72
storing briquettes.	146
tests of mortar.	119, 121
quantity for mixing mortar.	72, 121, 168, 240
used in making soundness tests.	175
of cement.	106
tests for.	99
mortar and concrete.	244
tests for.	232